Eastern Kentucky University
Encompass

Online Theses and Dissertations | Student Scholarship

January 2012

A Descriptive Analysis Of The National Council For Accreditation Of Teacher Education Master's In Teacher Leadership Programs From 1980 - Present

Cretia Mainous
Eastern Kentucky University

Follow this and additional works at: https://encompass.eku.edu/etd

Part of the Educational Administration and Supervision Commons

Recommended Citation
Mainous, Cretia, "A Descriptive Analysis Of The National Council For Accreditation Of Teacher Education Master's In Teacher Leadership Programs From 1980 - Present" (2012). *Online Theses and Dissertations*. 113.
https://encompass.eku.edu/etd/113

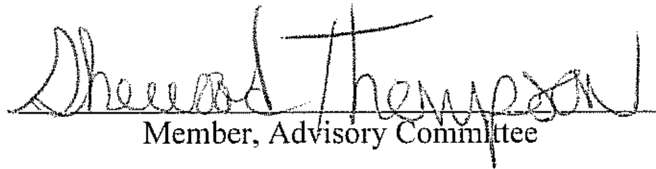
This Open Access Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Student Scholarship at Encompass. It has been accepted for inclusion in Online Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Encompass. For more information, please contact Linda.Sizemore@eku.edu.

A DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR ACCREDITATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION MASTER'S IN TEACHER LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS FROM 1980 - PRESENT

By
Cretia Mainous

Dissertation Approved:

Chair, Dr. Charles Hausman



Member, Advisory Committee

Member, Advisory Committee

Member, Advisory Committee

Dean, Graduate School

STATEMENT OF PERMISSION TO USE

In presenting this dissertation in partial fulfillment of the requirements for an Ed.D degree at Eastern Kentucky University, I agree that the Library shall make it available to borrowers under rules of the Library. Brief quotations from this dissertation are allowable without special permission, provided that accurate acknowledgement of the source is made.

Permission for extensive quotation from or reproduction of this dissertation may be granted by my major professor, or in his absence, by the Head of Interlibrary Services when, in the opinion of either, the proposed use of the material is for scholarly purposes. Any copying or use of the material in this dissertation for financial gain shall not be allowed without my written permission.

Signature *Cretia Mainous*

Date 9/24/12

A DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR ACCREDITATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION MASTER'S IN TEACHER LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS FROM 1980 - PRESENT

By

Cretia Mainous

Master of Arts
Eastern Kentucky University
Richmond, Kentucky
2007

Bachelor of Science
University of Kentucky
Lexington, Kentucky
2003

Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of
Eastern Kentucky University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
December, 2012

Copyright@ Cretia Mainous, 2012
All rights reserved

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my children, Brody and Kalia. Anything is achievable so long as you believe. I hope you both remember the power of education and always strive to achieve your goals. I will be forever proud to be your Mother. I love you both more than you will ever know!

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation is the culmination of three years of course work and research and would not have been possible without the support, guidance, and inspiration of several people. First, I would like to thank my committee chairperson, Dr. Charles Hausman, for his time, guidance, and support throughout this entire journey. Without his patience, ideas, and detailed feedback, this process would not have been possible. I will be eternally grateful for all of his hard work and his dedication to me and my journey. I would also like to thank my other committee members: Dr. Deborah West, Dr. Sherwood Thompson, and Dr. Amy Galloway for their time, commitment, and willingness to serve on my committee in this capacity.

I would also like to acknowledge my family. I have long been taught that education is something that can never be taken away from you by two very inspirational women: my mother, Dawn Arvin, and my Nanny, Hoyt Baber. Without their constant support and belief in my abilities, I would never have been able to accomplish this goal. To my husband, Brent, for his understanding of a dirty house, lack of home cooked meals, and lack of attention over the past few years; he has always supported me my goals and I will be eternally grateful for his love and support. To all of the family that has stepped in and helped take care of my children while I went through this journey; I never once had to worry about their care and am so thankful to have such a supportive family.

Lastly, I would like to thank my friends and cohort members who have experienced this journey with me, as well as the entire faculty in the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies department. A special thanks to my friend, Jennifer

Chambers. Without her constant support, motivation, and listening ear, I would not have been able to get through this process. I appreciate and will miss our venting sessions and the many dinners that we have shared over the past two years as we traveled this road together.

ABSTRACT

This study focused on the 28 institutions that are members of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and offer Master's in Teacher Leadership programs that they describe on their websites. Those programs were researched looking for similarities and differences across programs, specifically researching their Carnegie Foundation Classifications, geographical location, and basic program descriptors. A document-analysis was conducted on a sub-sample of three institutions that provided access to core course syllabi on-line looking for the embedded knowledge, skills, and dispositions within their coursework. These knowledge, skills, and dispositions were then compared to the Teacher Leader Model Standards developed by the Teacher Leader Exploratory Consortium to uncover if the program goals aligned with the standards. Recommendations are made for policy, practice and future research related to the development of teacher leadership.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER PAGE

I: INTRODUCTION 1

Introduction 1
Problem Statement 3
Rationale for Teacher Leadership 7
Purpose of the Study 13
Research Questions 14
Research Design 14
Summary 15
Definitions of Terms 15

II: LITERATURE REVIEW 17

Emergence of Teacher Leadership 17
Kentucky Context 19
The Phases of Teacher Leadership 21
What is Teacher Leadership? 24
Teacher Leadership Dimensions 27
Specific Roles of Teacher Leaders 30
Teacher Leader Qualities 32
Opportunities for Teacher Leaders 35
Collaboration 37
Benefits of Teacher Leadership 40
Principal's Role in Fostering Teacher Leaders 44
Barriers to Teacher Leadership 47
Can Teacher Leadership Be Developed? 50
Literature Review Visual 52

III: RESEARCH METHODS 54

Background of the Study 54
Purpose Statement 55
Research Designs 56
Rationale for Selecting a Mixed-Methods Approach 57
Document-Analysis Research 58
Population 58
Sample 58
Procedures for Data Collection 59

Data Collection for Research Question One 59
Data Collection for Research Question Two 65
Data Collection for Research Question Three 66
Data Analysis 68
Limitations 68

IV: ANALYSIS OF DATA 70

Purpose of the Study 70
Description of Sample...70
Research Questions Results 71
Research Question One 71
Carnegie Foundation Classifications 71
Graduate Instructional Program Classification 71
Enrollment Profile Classification...74
Size and Setting Classification..75
Basic Classification..78
Census Bureau Classifications 80
Research Question Two 82
Degree Earned..83
Required Credit Hours 84
Status, Course Delivery Method, and Culminating Project.............................86
Teacher Leadership Courses 87
Research Question Three 91
University One 95
University Two 100
University Three 105

V: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS 110

Background of the Study 110
Purpose of the Study 111
Overview of Research Methods...112
Summary of Findings...113
Research Question One 113
Carnegie Foundation Classifications 113
Graduate Instructional Program Classification 113
Enrollment Profile Classification..115
Size and Setting Classification...116
Basic Classification...116
Census Bureau Classifications 117

Research Question Two 119
Courses and Program Descriptors....119
Required Credit Hours 120
Student Status....121
Course Delivery Method....122
Culminating Project 123
Courses in Teacher Leadership Programs....124
Research Question Three 127
Alignment of Program Goals with the Teacher Leader Standards 127
Alignment at University One 127
Alignment at University Two 128
Alignment at University Three 129
Implications for Practice 130
Implications for Policy....132
Implications for Future Research....135
Concluding Thoughts....138

REFERENCES 139

APPENDIXES

A: Census Bureau Regions and Divisions of the United States Map 152

VITA 154

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE PAGE

4.1: Graduate Instructional Program Classification ... 74

4.2: Enrollment Profile Classification ... 75

4.3: Size and Setting Classification ... 77

4.4: Basic Classification ... 80

4.5: 2010 Census Bureau Classifications ... 82

4.6: Degree Earned ... 84

4.7: Required Hours ... 85

4.8: Status, Course Delivery Method, & Culminating Project ... 87

4.9: Teacher Leadership Courses ... 91

4.10: Teacher Leader Exploratory Consortium Standards: Domains ... 94

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE PAGE

1: Literature Review Visual 53

2: Census Bureau Map 153

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform (1983) published by the National Commission on Excellence in Education is considered a landmark event in modern American educational history. Among other things, the report contributed to the ever-growing sense that American schools are failing, and it touched off a wave of local, state, and federal reform efforts. Since *A Nation at Risk,* most national reform reports have recommended widespread teacher leadership (Barth, 2001) as a means to turn around failing schools. “Teacher leadership has become a defining characteristic of recent efforts to professionalize teaching and reform schools” (Smylie, 1995, p. 3). Bradley-Levine (2011) reiterates by saying “the concept of teacher leadership has the power to reform schools because it empowers teachers to pose and solve problems (p. 249).

A second national report spurring education reform efforts was published by the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986). There were many proposals made by the Carnegie Task Force to reform America’s schools, but one of the main ideas was the concept of a teacher leader. The proposal set forth by the task force was to “find ways of making the skill, wisdom, and knowledge of the school’s best teachers available both to the principal and to other teachers” (Tucker & Mandel, 1986, p. 27). The Carnegie Task Force believed that significant change and reform of schools had to stem from the teachers; specifically, the best teachers in the school needed to become leaders. In the years since its release, states and school districts across America have made efforts

to embrace the idea of having teachers hold leadership positions and provide various forms of leadership in their schools.

Teacher leadership initiatives also have been embraced throughout the United States as evident in the standards set forth by The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). NCATE's purpose is to accredit teacher certification programs at United States colleges and universities. It is a council of educators created to ensure and raise the quality of preparation for their profession. NCATE has standards that must be followed in order to be a member of this organization. Standard one states: Candidate knowledge, skills, and dispositions (NCATE, 2010). As an element under this standard, it is noted that candidates should be prepared to be leaders in their schools and districts (Troupe, Bell & Springate, 2008) which are two of the main components in teacher leadership. With this standard as a requirement to be met by all accredited colleges and universities, teacher leadership has become an important component of teacher preparation.

Finally, the teacher leadership movement is conducive to the report of the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1996). This report focused on strategies in achieving America's educational goals, specifically focusing on the teachers in America's schools. The report proposed six goals, with a projected achievement date of 2006. One of the goals proposed stated that all teacher education programs will meet professional standards (NCTAF, 1996). As stated, one of NCATE's professional standards includes the concept of a teacher leader in schools. Of the five recommendations given in the report to meet its six goals, one recommendation states, "reinvent teacher preparation" (NCTAF, 1996, p. 11). With an increasing number of

colleges and universities offering a teacher leadership program, it is evident that colleges and universities have followed the recommendations set forth by the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future and have reinvented their teacher preparation programs in order to build and foster more leaders within the school.

Problem Statement

Teacher leadership has been a staple in education reform attempts for the years since the release of the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986) and numerous reform efforts in the 1980s and 1990s (Helterbren, 2010), but the teacher leadership concept has evolved over these years. As cited in Murphy (2005), Gehrke (1991) agrees that "there have long been teacher leaders in schools" (p. 1). Teachers have always demonstrated considerable leadership in their individual classrooms (Crowther & Olsen, 1997). They have also demonstrated leadership at the school level through informal leadership (Strodl, 1992; Fay, 1992; Hatfield, 1989) and "limited formal leadership roles in schools and school districts" (Smylie & Brownlee-Conyers, 1992, p. 150). The new wave of current teacher leadership involves "efforts to enrich teacher leadership beyond these perspectives, to acknowledge its legitimacy outside the classroom and to deepen it as an organizational construct beyond informal and administratively determined hierarchically anchored roles" (Murphy, 2005, p. 17). There has been a limited amount of research conducted on this emerging form of teacher leadership. There has also been scant research conducted on the preparation of creating teacher leaders at the college/university level. Many researchers have been leaders in teacher leadership research, but their research is based more on defining teacher leaders, what it takes to be a teacher leader, and the positive effects teacher leaders have on their

schools, as found in the study conducted by Hallinger and Heck (2009), with little research on the university preparation of teacher leaders. Despite these emphasized in the literature, teacher leadership is operationalized and defined in a variety of ways and is still poorly understood (Helterbran, 2010). A common definition would arguably facilitate the selection, retention, and development of teacher leaders. This lack of a common definition poses a challenge for preparation programs. Moreover, there is a very limited amount of research conducted on the process and content of educating teachers to become teacher leaders within their classrooms, schools, and school districts. A review of the literature uncovered no articles on the way that colleges and universities are structuring their teacher leadership programs to produce emerging forms of teacher leaders. Just as students' success depends, in part, on the teacher who is educating the class, teacher leadership success will also depend, in part, on the institution preparing the teacher to be a leader. Research needs to be conducted on the program structure of teacher leadership programs at colleges and universities to have a clear understanding of the goals and desired outcomes of each program and to find commonalities and discrepancies between programs. Most importantly, research needs to be conducted on how these goals and outcomes align with the skills, knowledge, and dispositions needed by emerging conceptions of teacher leaders.

The United States Department of Education reports that under the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), in 2010, 37% of schools across the United States are not meeting Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP), (2011). This percentage is especially troubling when the proficiency level is expected to be at 100% for all schools and students by the year 2014. The fact that so many schools are not meeting AYP is used by reformers as

evidence that schools are continuing to fail and something must be done. With more than one-third of schools currently considered as failing (United States Department of Education, 2011) to meet federal goals, an in depth look at the programs educating and preparing the teachers that are serving these schools and students is warranted. Three thousand marginal teachers are affecting 5.5 million students in American schools. Colleges of Education must take extra precaution to avoid adding to the large number of marginal teachers and must maintain a serious effort to prevent unqualified people from entering the teaching profession (Gerlach & Giles, 1999).

Teachers are also turning over at an alarming rate. Kent states:

> The second cause for continuous teacher turnover is the failed system of traditional teacher preparation. If traditional teacher education were working rather than grinding out failure/quitters and those who never take jobs there would be no need to hire 2.2 million teachers between 2000 and 2010. Universities must take responsibility and respond to this problem before any more students suffer instructionally (2005, p. 343).

The success of the school and of the students depends tremendously on the teacher in the classroom, and the success of the teacher depends tremendously on the institution where the teacher was educated. Sherrill (1999) points out that even the best teachers are not prepared to be teacher leaders. There have been reports of frustration and lack of self-efficacy from teachers piloting new leadership roles. These reports indicate that teacher leaders need to have more purposeful preparation. As cited in Murphy (2005), "teacher education programs do not regularly include preparation in assuming leadership roles outside of the classroom" (Creighton, 1997, p.8). Ovington (2002) adds that "the

willingness to serve as a team member is not enough to ensure the success of the school-based management process. The participants must learn the requisite skills for the process of working together to restructure or redesign schools" (p. 389).

United States teacher education programs differ significantly from those in the rest of the industrialized world, which are more standardized and nationalized. Each of the fifty states has its own policies governing school graduation standards, assessment, and teacher education certification. Although there are a vast amount of similarities across states, there are also significant differences. With the majority of funding for education coming from the state level, the federal government has much less input on the practices involved in teacher education programs, creating a non-uniform means of educating future educators.

Accreditation also operates at multiple levels. States have established standards, and their programs are periodically reviewed for compliance. The National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) is the major, national accrediting body for teacher education. While this body yields some standardization, there is still widespread variance between teacher education programs. "Accreditation imposes a measure of standardization on programs, but within general parameters. There is a great deal of program variation representing the diversity of the more than 1,200 colleges and universities, small and large, actively involved in teacher education" (Bullough et al, 1998, p. 2). With similarities and differences between programs not being exclusively governed, there is a critical need to research the program structure of Master's in Teacher Leadership programs. Education agencies throughout the United States have experimented with countless varieties of teacher career enhancement and leadership

programs (Smylie, 1995). Consequently, themes and structures of these programs need to be researched to find commonalities and discrepancies in their desired knowledge and disposition outcomes of future teacher leaders.

Rationale for Teacher Leadership

Education reform has been has been broadly called for in the United States for decades, with great urgency following the release of the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986). Such school reform reports made compelling recommendations for teachers to provide active leadership in restructuring the nation's schools (Boles & Troen, 1996). The concept behind these proposals is that teachers have to be involved in the school and assume greater leadership responsibilities for there to be significant change to strengthen America's schools. In the years since Carnegie report's release, "teacher leadership has become an established feature of educational reform in the United States" (Smylie, Conley, & Marks, 2002, p. 162). As schools continue to reform, leadership will become a critical competency for every teacher (Moller & Katzenmeyer, 1996).

Teacher Leadership also supports other popular school reform efforts like professional learning communities (PLCs) (Bradley-Levine, 2011). PLCs provide teachers with the opportunity to work collaboratively with colleagues to enhance student achievement through shared decision-making on assessment, individual student progress, data, intervention strategies, and curriculum planning, among a host of other processes. It has become clear that teachers learn in communities that are long-term and collaborative (Horn, 2005). Collaboration is one of the main components of teacher leadership (Harris, 2005; Lieberman & Mace, 2009) and is the foundation for PLCs. This

makes teacher leadership not only an important stand-alone reform strategy, but also a critical factor in other school reform efforts as well. Lieberman and Mace (2009) contend that this type of reform for schools and teaching may be the most significant idea we have had in decades.

According to Yarger and Lee (1994), leadership in schools has traditionally been perceived to reside with school administrators, from whom power flowed downward to teachers. As referenced in Murphy (2005), in this hierarchal model of leadership, the expectation has been hardwired into the structure and culture of schools that the only job of teachers is to teach students and to consider the classroom, at best, as the legitimate extent of their influence (Urbanski & Nickolaou, 1997). While the need for leadership has been a central ingredient in the school change and school improvement literature, historically that leadership has been associated with those in roles with positional authority over teachers (Smylie, Conley, & Marks, 2002). These bureaucratic systems have stifled the movement toward teacher leadership in schools because it has "led to teacher isolation, alienation, and disenchantment" (Pellicer & Anderson, 1995, p.10). According to Murphy (2005), bureaucracy is ineffective and counterproductive to the needs and interests of educators within the school. It undermines the authority of teachers and is incompatible with the teaching profession. Murphy (2005) also maintains that the bureaucratic routinization of teaching and learning that has grown out of administrative attempts to control schools has neutralized teachers, undermined the drawing power and holding power of strong collegial ties, and discouraged teachers from taking on additional responsibilities. Given the tremendous attack on the basic organizational infrastructure of schooling, stakeholders at all levels are arguing that

ambitious, if not radical, reforms are required to rectify this situation (Elmore, 1993), as cited in Murphy (2005).

Principals bear many responsibilities as the formal leader of the school, but they cannot accomplish everything needed in effective schools alone. Principals need the help of the classroom teachers in order to fulfill their multiple missions. As a result, emergent principals view their teachers as vital components of a team approach for building success and not as isolated classroom teachers (Hambright & Franco, 2008). Futhermore, Lambert (2007) points out that including teacher leadership in building level collaborative decision-making allows the teacher leaders to continue initiatives as administrators change positions. The incoming administrators will be more likely to be effective sooner in buildings that have teacher leaders actively involved in the management of the school because teacher leaders contribute to the sustainability of school programs and strategies. As a result of teacher leadership, sudden change in administrative personnel will not be as traumatic if shared leadership is the norm.

To encourage teachers to flourish and be successful in their classrooms and schools, which would improve student learning, we must also improve schools for the adults who work in them (Smylie & Hart, 1999; Clark & Meloy, 1989). According to Frost & Durrant (2003), there is widespread agreement that the command and control approach to educational reform has taken schools about as far as it can and the outmoded bureaucratic educational structure must be replaced. The concept being developed for the new, flatter design for schools as cited in Murphy (2005) is, "from principal as manager to principal as facilitator, from teacher as worker to teacher as leader" (Beck & Murphy, 1993, p. 27). In this model, teachers have more leadership roles and opportunities.

According to Whitaker (1995), teacher leadership is essential to school change and improvement. Whitaker (1995) suggests that if educators want to see changes occur within their systems, teacher leadership is a key component. As cited in Murphy (2005), Kelly (1994) points out that "genuine, long-lasting school change initiatives must derive from and involve teachers" (p. 300), and without teachers' "full participation and leadership, any move to reform education – no matter how well-intentioned or ambitious – is doomed to failure" (Lieberman & Miller, 1999, p. xi). Williams (2007) also argues that such teacher-run schools may be the best hope for promoting the types of fundamental change required to keep pace with a rapidly changing world and the escalating expectations for public education. Consistently, Whitaker (1995) emphasizes that identifying the teachers in the school that the others respect and having these teachers lead the rest of the faculty down untraveled paths is the most effective way to accomplish change in a school. The success of teacher leaders on school reform efforts is evident in a study conducted by Hook (2006). After one school in the study implemented teacher leader efforts, the school moved from low performing to exemplary and is now categorized as a Blue Ribbon School of Excellence.

Additionally, Hallinger and Heck (2009) conducted a study to test the effect of collaborative leadership on reading achievement. Their results show that positive change in collaborative leadership was significantly related to growth in academic capacity (standardized $y = 0.51$, $p < .05$). Schools that have taken advantage of the valuable and often untapped resource teacher leaders represent have seen the difference it can make. Students learn more, teachers are more satisfied with their work, and schools benefit from increased human capital (Moller & Katzenmeyer, 1996). Many researchers and

education stakeholders agree that teacher leadership is a key component of school reform. Teacher leaders are in a unique position to make change happen. They are close to the ground and have the knowledge and ability to control the conditions for teaching and learning in schools and classrooms. Liberman and Miller (2004) report that teacher leaders are critical partners in transforming schooling by assuming the following roles: advocates for new forms of accountability and assessment, innovators in the reconstruction of norms of achievement and expectations for students, and stewards for an invigorated profession. By reviewing the program structure of teacher leadership programs at the Master's level, the research will provide evidence of whether or not the programs are teaching the concepts and skills needed by teacher leaders who will assume those emerging roles.

With the realization that teachers can create, carry out, and evaluate educational reform efforts, region- and state-level administrators in Florida committed resources, beginning in 1991, to support the development of teachers as leaders. A state priority was the launching of professional development for teachers to prepare for leadership roles. The training program that the state implemented was entitled Leadership Development of Teachers (LDT), and its purpose was to teach leadership skills to teachers who do not want an administrative position but still want to influence teaching and learning in their school. Hart and Baptist (1996) followed these teachers during the 1993-1994 school year. They administered a survey to teachers who had completed the training program. The purpose of the survey was to collect data relevant to the perceived impact of the training in the following three areas: career and professional development, personal and self-development, and work-place and work behaviors. Their results

showed that at least eighty three percent of the participants perceived a positive impact in each of the three areas. A few of the specific ways in which teachers felt their behavior changed included feeling more comfortable expressing why they agreed or disagreed with potential decisions, listening more deeply to colleagues, developing a better relationship with coworkers, and feeling more confident (Hart & Baptist, 1996).

The state of Maine has partnered with the University of Southern Maine to establish a similar program, Leadership for Tomorrow's Schools (LTS), with the mission to redesign schools and educator preparation on behalf of student learning and equity. After two years, the LTS program showed similar results to the LDT program. These studies provide evidence that not only does the presence of teacher leaders in schools improve student achievement, it also improves work lives for the teachers (Hart & Baptist, 1996).

Educational leadership programs have traditionally prepared individuals to lead entire schools or districts; Moller & Katzenmeyer (1996) argue it is time to reconsider whether these programs should be adapted to prepare teachers to be leaders as well. There is an overwhelming amount of evidence in school reform literature that the main link between policy and practice is preparation and education. This is particularly true in the area of teacher leadership because leading a group, a school, or an organization is not the same as teaching a class. Providing teachers with the necessary support and training to develop new skills and abilities is a key component in all efforts to deepen leadership in schools (Murphy, 2005). Most teachers, just like principals, need assistance if they are to become successful school leaders (Barth, 1998). With increasing evidence showing that teacher leadership is a key component in school reform (Smylie, 1995) and research

showing that teachers need quality training in order to become a teacher leader (Sherrill, 1999; Ovington, 2002), teacher leader programs need to be reviewed. Master's level teacher leadership programs may provide the assistance needed to reform schools and prepare teachers for these important leadership roles. Therefore, it is imperative to review these programs. Since there has been scant research conducted on teacher leadership preparation program structures at the preservice level, this study will make an important contribution. This study would help to answer in what types of institutions Master's in teacher leadership programs exist and the knowledge, skills, and dispositions that are embedded within the required coursework.

Since it can be seen that as leadership is spread evenly across the school, achievement levels also rise, this further iterates the importance for universities to develop teacher leadership. This evidence shows the importance of distributed leadership within schools and the impact that it can have on student achievement. Universities need to look at the way that they are preparing teacher leaders in order to ensure this type of success consistently.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study to conduct a descriptive analysis of Master's in Teacher Leadership programs who are accredited by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). The study will describe the types of institutions in which teacher leadership programs exist using common university categories and classifications. The study will also identify what comprises these teacher leadership programs in terms of general program and course descriptors. Finally, this study will focus on the knowledge, skills, and dispositions each program espouses to instill in their students based on their

required core coursework and sample syllabi. Commonalities and differences between programs will be emphasized, and assessments will be made regarding the alignment of these programs' emphases and the knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed by emerging conceptions of teacher leadership.

Research Questions

This study seeks to answer the following questions:

1) In what types of institutions do Master's in Teacher Leadership programs exist and where are they located?
2) What courses and general program descriptors comprise Master's in Teacher Leadership programs?
3) Are the embedded goals of Teacher Leader programs aligned with teacher leadership standards?

Research Design

This study relies on descriptive analyses to answer the stated research questions. The study will use a quantitative approach to answer research questions one and two. Specifically, frequencies will be calculated to describe the types of institutions in which Master's in Teacher Leadership programs exist. Frequencies will also be calculated to answer the question of what comprises Master's in Teacher Leadership programs to also find commonalities and differences across the institutions and programs. The study will use a qualitative approach to answer research question three. Three to five schools, of all of the institutions in the study, will be randomly selected to conduct a document analysis of syllabi to discover the knowledge, skills, and disposition goals for the teacher leadership programs of those institutions, looking for commonalities, themes, and

discrepancies. The goals emphasized will be compared and contrasted for their alignment with the Teacher Leader Model Standards as produced by the Teacher Leader Exploratory Consortium.

Summary

Teacher leadership is thought by many to aid in the transformation of schools during school reform. With nearly 37% of schools across the United States currently not meeting Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP), (Duncan & Skelly, 2011), school reform will be essential to improve these schools, hence the critical need for teacher leaders. Even the best teachers in a school tend to feel overwhelmed and discouraged when they are not adequately prepared to be a teacher leader (Sherrill, 1999), which makes the case for the need for quality teacher leader education programs at the university Master's level. With different governing bodies residing over universities and their teacher education programs, there is no uniform means of educating future teachers. This presents a problem because commonalities and differences between programs are unknown since their policies are governed through different bodies. There is scant current research striving to investigate the commonalities and discrepancies between Master's in Teacher Leadership programs. Since teacher leadership plays such an important role in current education reform, teacher leadership programs must be researched to find underlying common structures and themes, as well as alignment with the knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed by teacher leaders.

Definitions of Terms

Adequate Yearly Progress is an individual state's measure of yearly progress toward achieving state academic standards. "Adequate Yearly Progress" is the minimum

level of improvement that states, school districts and schools must achieve each year (US Department of Education, 2004).

Collaboration is a mutual engagement between members in a group when they try to solve a problem together (Williams & Sheridan, 2006).

No Child Left Behind is a piece of legislation that includes higher standards for teachers and yearly assessments to demonstrate progress for students. Although the legislation is specific and prescriptive, each state designs its own program components, such as content standards, performance standards, and assessments, which are then approved by the federal government (US Department of Education, 2010).

Professional Development refers to continued, lifelong learning by educational practioners to impact student learning (Nicholls, 2010).

School reform or reform-driven activities are those that alter existing procedures, rules, and requirements to enable the organization to adapt the way it functions to new circumstances or requirements (Conley, 1993).

Teacher Leadership is concerned with teachers helping teachers so that teachers can, in turn, better help students (Pellicer & Anderson, 1995), influencing others to improve their professional practice (Moller & Katzenmeyer, 1996), actively involved in promoting change, effectively communicate with multiple constituents (Harrison & Lembeck, 1996), is engaged in collaborative decision-making (Lambert, 2007), and is a teacher who is a practicing teacher that calls for neither managerial nor supervisory duties (Fay, 1992a).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Emergence of Teacher Leadership

Education reform has been urged at all levels in the United States for the past twenty-five years following the release of the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986). There were many proposals made by the Carnegie Task Force, but one of the ideas at the forefront was the concept of a teacher leader. The proposal set forth by the task force was to "find ways of making the skill, wisdom, and knowledge of the school's best teachers available both to the principal and to other teachers" (Tucker, Mandel, 1986, p. 27). This and earlier school reform reports made compelling recommendations for teachers to provide active leadership in restructuring the nation's schools (Boles & Troen, 1996). The concept behind these proposals is that teachers have to be involved in the school and assume greater leadership responsibilities for there to be significant change to improve America's schools. In the years since the release of the Carnegie report, teacher leadership has become an established feature of educational reform in the United States (Smylie, Conley, & Marks, 2002, p. 162).

Strong endorsement of teacher leadership continued, as evidenced in recommendations made by the Council of Chief State School Officers (Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium, 1996) in their standards for school leaders, which supports a collaborative approach to school leadership. Teacher leadership is unlike other reform efforts in that it "is often an embedded concept, one that appears as a defining strand in a larger reform effort rather than as a distinct strategy" (Murphy, 2005, p. 4). Other reform strategies like a performance-based compensation system, mentor teacher plans, site-based decision making, and professional development schools are all

initiatives that have at their core the need for more active participation of teachers in the leadership and development of the educational enterprise (York-Barr & Duke, 2004).

According to Yarger and Lee (1994), leadership in schools has traditionally been perceived to reside with school administrators with power flowing downward to teachers. In this hierarchal model of leadership, "the expectation has been hardwired into the structure and culture of schools that the only job of teachers is to teach students and to consider the classroom, at best, as the legitimate extent of their influence" (Urbanski & Nickolaou, 1997, p. 244). While the need for leadership has been a central ingredient in the school change and school improvement literature, historically that leadership has been associated with those in roles with positional authority over teachers (Smylie, Conley, & Marks, 2002; Bradley-Levine, 2011). These bureaucratic systems have stifled the movement toward teacher leadership in schools because it has "led to teacher isolation, alienation, and disenchantment" (Pellicer & Anderson, 1995, p.10). According to Murphy (2005), bureaucracy is ineffective and counterproductive to the needs and interests of educators within the school. It undermines the authority of teachers and is incompatible with the professional organization. Murphy also posits that the directorial standardization of teaching and learning that has emerged from administrative attempts to direct schools has counteracted teachers, undermined the power of strong collegial ties and discouraged teachers from taking on additional responsibilities.

To encourage teachers to flourish and be successful in their classrooms and schools, which would enhance student learning, "we must also improve schools for the adults who work in them" (Smylie & Hart, 1999, p. 421). According to Frost & Durrant (2003), there is a widespread agreement that the command and control approach to

educational reform is an outmoded bureaucratic educational structure that must be replaced. The leadership concept being developed for this new design for schools as cited in Murphy (2005) is, “from principal as manager to principal as facilitator, from teacher as worker to teacher as leader” (Beck & Murphy, 1993, p. 27). In this model, teachers have expanded leadership roles and opportunities.

According to Whitaker (1995), teacher leadership is essential for change and improvement in a school. As cited in Murphy (2005), Kelly (1994) contends that “genuine, long-lasting school change initiatives must derive from and involve teachers” (p. 300), and without teachers’ “full participation and leadership, any move to reform education – no matter how well-intentioned or ambitious – is doomed to failure” (Lieberman & Miller, 1999, p. xi). Williams (2007) similarly argues that such teacher-run schools may be the best hope for promoting the types of fundamental change required to keep pace with a rapidly changing world and the escalating expectations for public education.

Kentucky Context

Kentucky embraced the idea of teacher leadership by adding a teacher leadership component to the ten New Kentucky Teacher Standards in 2003. Standard ten states: Provides leadership within school/community/profession. Although it is unclear as to what capacity teachers are expected to be leaders within the school, community, and profession, it is evident that Kentucky feels strongly enough about the concept of teachers becoming leaders to embed the initiative within the standards that all teachers must meet. Kentucky took teacher leadership a step further in 2008 when the Educational Professional Standards Board (EPSB) charged all Kentucky colleges and universities

with adding a teacher leadership component to their Master's in Teaching and Planned Fifth-Year Programs. This charge was presented by the EPSB as more than a suggestion to all Kentucky colleges and universities; it was presented as a law which all institutions must adhere by. Each college and university in Kentucky was required to have submitted, approved programs by 2011. This initiative by the EPSB is following the charge that Kentucky schools are to reach proficiency by 2014. The document released by the EPSB states:

> Kentucky schools are charged with reaching proficiency by 2014, and the PreK-12 education community that includes school district administrators and teachers is held accountable for rigorous performance standards tied to annual assessments. With the changing role of the career educator, professional preparation beyond the initial licensure phase presents some unique concerns and issues. Educators need more than rigor and relevancy to equip them to move student learning to higher levels (2008, p. 1).

Along with this adoption, Kentucky also passed Senate Bill 1. Currently, Kentucky students are graduating from high school not being successful in college (Teachers' Domain, 2011). Also, America's best students are not able to be competitive academically with the best students in other countries (Teachers' Domain, 2011), which has caused Kentucky to make dramatic changes in their education system. Senate Bill 1, adopted in 2009, calls for an increase in student expectations and a focus on 21st century skills. Wagner (2008) lists critical thinking and problem solving; collaboration and leadership; agility and adaptability; initiative and entrepreneurialism; effective oral and written communication; accessing and analyzing information; and curiosity and imagination as examples of 21st century skills. New Common Core standards were also adopted as a part of the initiative, which calls for

> critical knowledge, skills and capacities needed for success in the global economy; reflect fewer, but more in-depth standards to facilitate learning;

> communicate expectations more clearly and concisely to teachers, parents, students and citizens; consider international benchmarks; and ensure that the standards are aligned from elementary to high school to postsecondary education so that students can be successful at each educational level (Kentucky Board of Education, 2010, p. 1).

The passage of the teacher leadership initiative and of Senate Bill 1 shows that Kentucky sees the importance and the value of teachers as leaders and seems to contend that for the education system to make dramatic changes and to increase student achievement, teachers becoming leaders is a vital piece of the initiative.

The Phases of Teacher Leadership

Throughout these past twenty five years, teacher leadership has continued to be an initiative in the attempt to reform American public school systems. The teacher leadership concept has evolved over these years moving through four overlapping phases. Within the first phase, there were efforts to capture leadership for teachers by reshaping the structure of the school organization and the culture of the teaching profession, changing teaching from a single role to an assortment of differentiated assignments. As cited in Murphy (2005), this phase of teacher leadership saw the emergence of initiatives such as career ladders, differentiated teaching, mentor teaching plans, and performance-based compensation systems (Berry & Ginsberg, 1990; Yarger & Lee, 1994; Zimpher, 1988). This phase also attempted to secure teachers' commitment to teaching and collecting their expertise in support of new teachers and school improvement (Little, 2003). All of these interventions were designed to conceptualize the nature of the teaching career. This early venture and first phase of teacher leadership was grafted onto the hierarchical organizational structure that defined schooling for most of the twentieth century and grew from views of the centralized reform strategies in play at the time

(Murphy, 1990). This phase is exemplified by such teacher leader roles as department head, head teacher, master teacher, and union representative (Silva et al., 2000).

During the second phase of teacher leadership, empowerment ideology and decentralization strategies began to challenge the prevailing centralized perspectives on reform. This phase featured shared decision-making and participatory governance (Murphy, 2005). Although such roles provided teachers with leadership opportunities, they were focused on the effectiveness and efficiency of the system rather than on instructional leadership (Silva et al., 2000).

During the third phase of teacher leadership, new educationally anchored roles were created, which were positions that capitalized on teacher instructional knowledge. Positions such as team leader, curriculum developer, and staff coach emerged (Silva et al., 2000). With these new opportunities, teacher leadership moved "away from management and toward pedagogical expertise" (Silva et al., 2000, p. 780) but these positions were still outside leadership positions "that were apart from rather than a part of teachers' daily work" (Silva et al., 2000, p. 780). This was also the time when reform conditions in the U.S. shifted dramatically as high stakes accountability took hold. District and school administrators recruited teachers into leadership positions in the service of external accountability (Little, 2003).

In the fourth and current phase of teacher leadership, schools are developing as learning organizations. In this frame, organizational roles and decision-making responsibilities are not emphasized, and the concept of a community of practice is dominant. Leadership in this context is considered as a central element of the work of all teachers engaged in school improvement. Hierarchical conceptions that placed teachers

into different, limited functions are becoming less evident and there is more promoting of professionalization of all teachers and nurturing widespread collaboration (Murphy 2005).

Moller and Katzenmeyer (1996), describe teacher leadership as emerging from three catalysts. First, teachers have engaged in new ways of teaching related to their content area, such as process writing, and new instructional strategies, like differentiated instruction. As teachers gained confidence in their newly learned skills, they began to share these ideas with colleagues, which in return thrust them into teacher leadership positions. Those teachers then took these ideas back to their classrooms, where they used them to improve instruction for their students. This poses as a powerful teacher leadership model because credible teachers are influential with their colleagues. Second, the widespread use of site-based decision-making for school improvement has spurred the development of teacher leaders. Although these committees also include the principal and parents, the teachers on the council become the voice for the entire teaching staff, emerging them as leaders within the school. Previously teachers focused primarily on their own classroom; now they experience all of the benefits and frustrations of working with other adults to improve their schools. Lastly, teacher leadership has emerged from teachers' involvement in networks or consortia of like-minded schools. These networks encourage teacher leadership through study groups, national symposia, and other activities that honor teacher leadership. By sharing with other schools, teachers begin to realize what they have to offer to others. They begin to take responsibility for the success of projects rather than depending on administrators to be the sole providers of leadership.

They also are able to serve as leaders at various levels at which they feel most comfortable (Moller & Katzenmeyer, 1996).

What is Teacher Leadership?

With teacher leadership becoming more popular, there are many different definitions of teacher leadership. "The issue of teacher leadership is devilishly complicated. And it doesn't help matters that the phrase itself is frustratingly ambiguous" (Wigginton, 1992, p. 167). There is not one definition that can be agreed upon by all for the means of defining teacher leadership. In writing about teacher leadership, many researchers often assert the importance of the concept and describe its various forms, but they usually fail to define it.

Murphy (2005) notes that leadership has historically been defined across two axes, one representing a sense of vision about where an organization should be headed and a second capturing the relational work required to move organizational participants toward that end. When a definition is attempted, it usually broadens the range of definitions of teacher leadership. For example, Wasley (1991) defines teacher leadership as the ability to encourage colleagues to change, to do things they would not ordinarily consider without the influence of the leader. Boles and Troen (1994) contrast it to traditional notions of leadership, by characterizing teacher leadership as a form of collective leadership in which teachers develop expertise by working collaboratively. Ash and Persall (2000) describe teacher leadership as expert teachers, who spend the majority of their time in the classroom but take on different leadership roles at different times. Lastly, Ackerman and Mackenzie (2006) define teacher leadership as "carrying the weight of responsibility for ensuring that reforms take root in the classroom and

deepen the learning of all students. They are also a school's conscience; they care deeply about students and about the institutions designed to help students learn, and they continually think about the gap between the real and ideal in schools" (p. 66). These definitions are just a few of the many that are adding to the ever-growing complexity of defining teacher leadership.

York-Barr and Duke (2004) believe that the lack of a common definition may be due, in part, to the expansive territory encompassed under the umbrella term "teacher leadership." They also indicate that the conceptions of teacher leadership highlight the use of teachers' expertise about teaching and learning to improve the culture and instruction in schools such that student learning is enhanced. Such a view of teacher leadership involves leading among colleagues with a focus on instructional practice, as well as working at the organizational level to align personnel, fiscal, and material resources to improve teaching and learning.

Leadership in schools traditionally follows a hierarchical model with the principal at the top of the pyramid and the teachers below. This top down type of leadership is the exact opposite of what the teacher leadership model represents. The challenge for principals is to view leadership as more than the possession of power and authority based on hierarchical status and refocus attention on teachers who lead learning in productive ways (Fitzgerald & Gunter, 2008) and view leadership more democratically. Power and decision making should be dispersed throughout the school instead of just lying with one person, which is usually the person at the top. Harris (2005) agrees that for leadership to be maximized there has to be shared values and goals along with the ability to take action. This can only be achieved as part of a democratic process where individual ideas

and actions can be freely expressed. When schools operate democratically, teachers will be more likely to contribute to their development in a positive way. Teachers having more control over decisions and being involved in a democratic view of leadership are two of the main aspects of teacher leadership. True leadership enables practicing teachers to reform their work and provides a means for altering the hierarchical nature of schools, but the lack of a clear definition of teacher leadership impedes its development (Moller & Katzenmeyer, 1996).

Although teacher leaders and administration need to work together, it needs to be clear that they are separate entities with different defining elements that distinguish the two. Administration and managerial leadership holds references to position, formal training, legal authority, and organizational expertise, whereas descriptions of pedagogical knowledge and collegiality anchor the literature on teacher leadership (Darling-Hammond et al., 1995). Murphy (2005) contends that a teacher leader must be someone who is a practicing teacher, not someone who has left the classroom, someone who works and has influence outside his or her classroom, does not engage in managerial and supervisory activities, is chosen by teacher colleagues, and who wields considerable autonomy in undertaking his or her work. While there is a broad range of definitions of teacher leadership, for the purpose of this study the following definition of teacher leadership will be employed, which is a combination of several researcher's definitions. Teacher leadership is concerned with teachers helping teachers so that teachers can, in turn, better help students (Pellicer & Anderson, 1995), influencing others to improve their professional practice (Moller & Katzenmeyer, 1996), actively involved in promoting change, effectively communicate with multiple constituents (Harrison & Lembeck, 1996)

and is a teacher who is a practicing teacher that calls for neither managerial nor supervisory duties (Fay, 1992a).

Teacher Leadership Dimensions

Along with many different definitions, there are also many dimensions that comprise teacher leadership. One of the main dimensions of teacher leadership is formal verses informal leadership. Teachers can show their leadership in many different ways in their schools. First, the teachers can take on more of the formal leadership roles in their schools such as department chairs (Bradley-Levine, 2011), members of the principal advisory councils, team leaders, grade level coordinators, and structured committees (Whitaker, 1995). They can also become formal teacher leaders at the district level through roles such as staff development trainers, curriculum coaches, curriculum development task facilitators, mediators, mentors, and district innovation facilitators (Killion, 1996). These positions are very traditional leadership roles and often have the person in these positions moving away from the classroom (Harris, 2003) to achieve the goals of these roles. These formal teacher leadership roles are still essential to the school and teachers to ensure that the teachers have a structured avenue for their voices to be heard in helping make critical school decisions. The teachers may not have a voice in decision-making in the absence of formal leadership roles. A formal leadership role also facilitates a collaborative environment that is crucial in developing a positive school culture (Whitaker, 1995) along with helping to establish stability within schools (Kahrs, 1996). Being a part of school decision making makes the teachers feel more positive about decisions and increases teacher buy-in.

As with all factors, there can be some drawbacks to having such structured teacher leadership roles. One of the difficulties of having such a decision-making design is that it constitutes a ready means to preserve the status quo. This is especially true if the teacher leaders in some of these roles are already in place or traditionally appointed on a seniority basis. Such teachers are not necessarily the most skilled or the best able to communicate with their peers (Whitaker, 1995). Veteran teachers traditionally resist change and may not seek out their peers to receive their opinions on issues that are up for discussion. Because of these concerns, the use of the informal teacher leader structure may be a more efficient and effective method of implementing lasting change in schools (Whitaker, 1995).

Consequently, newer conceptions of teacher leadership tend to expand notions of teacher leadership as practiced from formal roles to include leadership practiced through more informal means of leadership (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Informal teacher leaders are very different from formal teacher leaders and tend to better represent the new ideas of teacher leadership. Informal teacher leaders bring something different in regards to change in schools, as compared to formal teacher leaders, thus the new interest of school leaders trying to foster more informal teacher leaders. Teacher leadership can be embedded in tasks and roles that do not create artificial, imposed, formal hierarchies and positions (Darling-Hammond et al., 1995). Lambert (2003b) states that when leadership means a person in a specific role enveloped in formal authority, teachers do not see themselves reflected in that image. When leadership becomes a broadly inclusive cultural concept, it provokes a different response: such seeing oneself as participating in this learning work with my colleagues. Teacher leaders lead informally by revealing

their classroom practice, sharing their expertise, asking questions of colleagues, mentoring new teachers, modeling how teachers collaborate on issues of practice (Ackerman & Mackenzie, 2006), planning, communicating goals, regulating activities, creating a pleasant workplace environment, supervising, motivating those supervised, and evaluating the performance of those supervised (Harris 2003).

As opposed to formal teacher leaders, informal teacher leaders tend to stay more in the classroom and help foster better classroom practices in order to facilitate more effective teachers. Informal leading is less about a leader/follower divide and less about the potential of one person. Southworth (2002) points out that the long standing belief in the power of one is being challenged. Taking this view on teacher leadership, leadership is more about collaborating with colleagues and generating better ideas together. Informal teacher leadership emphasizes colleagues learning together and creating an environment to reflect and take actions that grow out of new understandings (Harris, 2003). Informal teacher leadership is less like the student/teacher relationship that can sometimes result through formal leadership roles and more like collaboration between colleagues where new ideas are fostered together and learning takes place by all. Although informal structures are more difficult to monitor and maintain, they tend to have a greater influence on teacher leadership (Kahrs, 1996).

York-Barr and Duke (2004) describe four conceptions of leadership that are inclusive of formal and informal leaders: participative leadership, leadership as an organizational quality, distributed leadership, and parallel leadership. Participative leadership stresses the decision-making process of the group arguing that such a leadership approach will enhance organizational effectiveness (Leithwood & Duke,

1999). Leadership as an organizational quality is leadership that is not confined to certain roles in organizations; it flows through the networks of roles that comprise organizations. It is based on the deployment of resources that are distributed throughout the network of roles (Ogawa & Bossert, 1995). Leadership stretches across people in schools to affect the conditions for teaching and learning. Lastly, parallel leadership encourages relatedness between teacher leaders and administrator leaders that activates and sustains the knowledge-generating capacity of schools. It embodies mutual respect, shared purpose, and allowance for individual expression (Crowther et al., 2002).

Specific Roles of Teacher Leaders

Taking formal and informal leadership roles into consideration, Harrison and Killion (2007) have devised ten specific roles of teacher leaders. They report that teachers can lead in a variety of ways with the following being the ten most common methods. First, teacher leaders can be resource providers. Teachers can share instructional resources such as websites, curriculum guides, books, articles, lesson and unit plans, and any other resource they see as helpful in improving instruction. Secondly, teacher leaders can serve as instructional specialists. These teacher leaders help colleagues implement effective instructional strategies. Examples include providing ideas for differentiating instruction or helping to plan collaborative lessons. The third role is curriculum specialist. Curriculum specialists lead teachers to agree on standards, follow the adopted curriculum, use common pacing charts, and develop shared assessments with their vast knowledge and understanding of how various components of the curriculum link together. Fourth, teacher leaders can serve as classroom supporters. They work inside the classrooms to help teachers implement new ideas, often by

demonstrating a lesson, co-teaching, or observing and giving feedback. The fifth role is a learning facilitator. These teacher leaders facilitate professional learning opportunities among the staff members. The sixth teacher leader role is a mentor. Being a mentor for novice teachers is a common role for teacher leaders. Mentors serve as role models and advise new teachers about instruction, curriculum, procedure, practices, and policies. The seventh role is a school leader. This could entail serving on a committee, acting as a grade-level or department chair, supporting school initiatives, or representing the school on community or district task forces or committees. The eighth role is a data coach. Data coaches can lead conversations that engage their peers in analyzing and using information to strengthen instruction. The ninth role is acting as a catalyst for change. These teacher leaders are never satisfied with the status quo. They are always looking for a better way to accomplish goals and they pose questions to generate analysis of student learning that lead to school improvement. The tenth and final teacher role proposed by Harrison and Killion (2007) is a learner. Arguably, the most important role of a teacher leader, the learner models continual improvement, demonstrates lifelong learning, and uses what they learn to serve all students.

These ten roles are not mutually exclusive. Clustering these roles, Harris (2005) purports that there are four main elements which they enact roles of teacher leadership. The first is influence. Teacher leaders influence others through structured discussion, enquiry, and evaluation. Second is empowering. This entails giving teachers some ownership of a particular change or decision. Emphasis is placed upon participative leadership where all teachers feel part of the process. The third dimension is mediating. Teacher leaders are important sources of expertise and information. They are able to

draw upon additional resources and expertise if required and to seek external assistance. The fourth and final dimension of teacher leadership according to Harris (2005) is relationships. This requires the teacher leader to forge close relationships with individual teachers where mutual learning takes place. Harrison and Killion (2007) and Harris (2005) show the broad scope of teacher leadership; it can take on a variety of roles, and there is no one way of being a teacher leader.

Lieberman and Miller (2004) emphasize three roles: advocates, innovators, and stewards. Advocates speak up for what is best for student learning. They are able to advocate for new forms of accountability and assessment. Advocacy can take place on a one-on-one basis or in a group setting. Innovators are unafraid to try new ideas and act as the change agents to transform schools. These teacher leaders make suggestions and implement new initiatives. Stewards are those who positively shape the teaching profession. Although they are not as vocal as advocates and innovators, they are supporters and models of professional growth and help raise the status of teaching. They consistently serve as models of continued improvement.

Teacher Leader Qualities

Much has been written about what it takes to become a teacher leader and the qualities that are possessed by these teachers. Many of the lists include characteristics such as being accountable, accepting, accessible, collaborative, decisive, disciplined, empathetic, ethical, fair, focused, global thinker, honest, intelligent, involved, organized, perceptive, positive, resourceful, a risk-taker, supportive, team players, trustworthy, and visionary (Martin, 2005). This is a very lengthy list of characteristics that seems almost impossible for one person to possess. From an extensive review of the literature, the

characteristics can be encompassed by seven different qualities that teacher leaders need to possess in order to be successful in this role. The first quality is being collaborative. As touched on earlier, collaboration is a major piece of the puzzle to ensure the success of teacher leadership. Teacher leaders have to be willing to work with colleagues on decision-making, generating ideas, classroom observations, along with many other forms of collaboration. Teacher leaders, through collaboration, not only impart knowledge and method but also awaken a sense of collective responsibility (Ackerman & Mackenzie, 2006). Collaboration is a great tool that benefits both parties and enables them to learn to be better teachers in and out of the classroom and to foster more teacher leaders.

The second characteristic is experience. Teacher leaders generally are experienced teachers who have tested their beliefs about teaching and learning and codified them into a platform that informs their practice (Ackerman & Mackenzie, 2006). Less experienced teachers will look to their more experienced colleagues for advice and guidance when starting out in their profession. Experience usually also comes with knowledge – knowledge about what has worked and what has not worked in their school and classroom in previous situations.

The third characteristic of being a teacher leader is to be open to learning. All of the experience in the world cannot prepare one for all situations. New issues will arise where there will be no previous experience to call on for solutions. Teacher leaders are "open to learning and understand the major dimensions of learning in schools: the learning of students, learning of colleagues, learning of self, learning of the community" (Lambert, 2003b, p. 422). Teacher leaders realize that teaching and leading is an ongoing learning experience and there will never come a time in their career when they should

stop trying to learn new practices. Teacher leaders provide leadership through their example of becoming lifelong learners themselves (Lieberman & Miller, 2004).

The fourth quality is student interest. Teacher leaders may take on different leadership roles, but they are still teachers and the interest of their students should be at the forefront of all decision-making and leadership roles. Teachers who lead develop strong commitments to their students through their life experiences and their own teaching (Lieberman & Miller, 2004). Successful teacher leaders stay true to their beliefs, couple confidence with humility in their practice, and continually work with colleagues to improve student learning (Ackerman & Mackenzie, 2006). Teacher leaders cannot forget why they got into this profession – the students.

The fifth quality is that of problem solver. Teacher leaders are not ones to sit back when they see a problem arise; they take hold of the problem and look for solutions to solve it. Martin (2005) states that teacher leaders are problem solvers who acknowledge an issue or problem and contemplate a variety of solutions. They are constantly looking for ways to improve schooling and are not satisfied with the status quo. Teacher leaders are actively promoting change (Harrison & Lembeck, 1996).

The sixth characteristic of a teacher leader is communication. Teacher leaders need good interpersonal skills to be able to effectively communicate with multiple constituents (Harrison & Lembeck, 1996). They will be the ones who will speak out and try to get other teachers on board with their ideas. Teacher leaders need highly effective communications skills to get their points across and have other teachers believe in them. They also need to practice communication as a reciprocal process and be active listeners

in order to better serve their colleagues and students through a greater understanding of their needs.

The final quality of teacher leadership is vulnerability. Sometimes being a teacher leader means taking risks and standing up for something with which not everyone agrees. Teachers who lead take risks by expanding their own comfort zones and modeling experimentation (Lieberman & Miller, 2004). In some cases, colleagues may see them as rude, disloyal, or worse (Ackerman & Mackenzie, 2006) for not going along with the group and making waves in the decision-making process. Teacher leaders have to be willing to accept this negative response and be willing to be criticized. Leaders are willing to make themselves vulnerable and do it again, again and again (West, 2006).

Opportunities for Teacher Leaders

Barth (2001) does not develop specific teacher leadership roles but suggests four opportunities in which a teacher can be a leader in their schools. He first suggests that a teacher can lead by following. This is a very low risk, informal form of leadership but very important because the success of those at the front of the line depends on the support of those behind them. Those who lead by following can join the cause of another teacher leader who is at the forefront of a change initiative. By joining forces, the initiative is more likely to be adopted and also more likely to have other teachers join the bandwagon. When leading by following, those teacher leaders can speak out for a cause in which they believe, sign petitions, write letters, and join in the cheering section. The second form of teacher leadership is to join the team. As part of the democratic leadership movement, many decisions are made based upon the recommendations to the principal by committees or councils. Those who join these committees and councils automatically

become a teacher leader through a formal leadership role. Their voices will be heard and other teachers, those who are not part of these teams, will be looking to those who are members for their own representation of ideas and beliefs. The third way to be a teacher leader according to Barth (2001) is to lead alone. When leading alone, those teacher leaders have to be willing to take risks. They are not working as part of a team and are not enlisting others to support their efforts; they are working towards something that they believe will positively influence their school. An example would be writing a grant to improve the school in some form. When leading alone, others in the school may not even be aware of the efforts until the grant is awarded, for example. If the grant is not awarded, their leadership efforts could very well go unnoticed. The last way to lead is to lead by example. These teacher leaders serve consistently as "visible models of persistence, hope, and enthusiasm" (Barth, 2001, p. 447). These teacher leaders typically remain in their classrooms and often bring others in. They have people observe their work, reflect together, and exchange their knowledge about teaching. They are leaders for collaborative learning, which is an important component of teacher leadership.

Murphy (2005) also acknowledges many opportunities for teachers to become leaders but has grouped these opportunities into two broad pathways: role-based strategies and community-based approaches. Role-based strategies are the traditional views of teacher leadership, assigning teachers to formal leadership roles within schools – formal roles such as lead/master/mentor teachers and the forms of differentiated teacher staffing including career ladders (Odell, 1997). The second pathway, community-based strategies, broadens the definition of teacher leadership and includes alternative forms of leadership that move past the idea of leadership as manifested in individuals occupying

formal positions to more dynamic, organizational views of leadership (Smylie et al., 2002). Teachers assume leadership naturally as part of a more professional conception of work instead of formally appointed positions. This approach creates an interactive community of teachers collaborating for improvement and experimentation in their schools (Boles & Troen, 1996).

Collaboration

Collaboration is one of the main factors in defining a teacher leader. Harris (2005) agrees by reporting, "The principle of teacher collaboration is at the core of developing teacher leadership" (p. 22). "It has become clearer that teachers learn in communities that are long-term and collaborative" (Lieberman & Mace, 2009, p. 459). Bradley-Levine (2011) concurs by adding that when teachers share common events and actions the individual influence of teacher leaders expands. Teachers are interested in leadership opportunities that allow them to collaborate with their colleagues (Wasley, 1992), and they thrive best in an atmosphere of cooperation and collaboration (Fay, 1992b). Like all leaders, teachers must know how to collaborate and lead with other people (Wetzler, 2010). Collaboration in the teacher leadership sense is so much more than just developing a joint lesson with a colleague a couple of times each year; it is more about forming relationships and helping each other grow as a teacher through reflection and practice. Leaders learn from other leaders and teachers need opportunities to observe other teachers (Wetzler, 2010).

Collaboration goes beyond talk and involves people working together toward the same outcome in ways that directly share the work, thinking, and responsibility (Perkins, 2003). Collaboration is "interdependence and the distribution of leadership, which

resonate clearly with both the notion of a *network* – a distributed, lateral and flexible structure and with *networking* – the relationships, norms and values that characterize the work of the members of the network" (Holden, 2008, p. 308). When collaborating with others, teachers receive an opportunity to experiment with their teaching and expand their knowledge base. Working collaboratively gives the teachers a common frame of reference, a common language, and collegial support to make pedagogical innovations. Collaboration also eliminates teacher isolation and provides teachers with the opportunity to talk about their teaching which will help them to feel energized by these team discussions. Teachers who work together will trust their colleagues, feel accountable to other team members for the work they do, and receive the collective latitude needed to take professional risks (Boles & Troen, 1996).

When building these networks and collaborative opportunities, the first place to start is in the classroom itself. Having teachers observing other teachers and their classrooms opens up a huge opportunity for learning and reflection with both parties involved. "Classroom observation is a pivotal activity that links together reflection for the individual teacher and collaborative enquiry for teachers" (Harris, 2005, p. 22). This observation technique is extremely meaningful and productive because the learning is two-fold. Some may think that the teacher doing the observing will be the only one to gain improved practice from the exercise, but the observed teacher has an opportunity to take advantage of the situation as well. The observing teacher has an opportunity to see a colleague in action and learn new ways of conducting lessons and classroom ideas. For the teacher being observed, it gives them an opportunity to talk with another teacher about the lesson providing them with the chance to reflect on the lesson and to "highlight

areas of good practice and to identify future areas of development" (Harris, 2005, p.23). When leaders have a leadership learning relationship with a colleague, based on concepts of professional partnership, it challenges them to reflect on their current ways of working with adults, and students. They have to become learners in the relationship. They learn to ask questions to be able to empower and enable others to think and engage in the new learning or innovation, as they also learn about themselves and their own leadership vicariously (Robertson, 2009). When actively engaged in reflective dialogue, adults become more complex in their thinking about the world, more respectful of diverse perspectives, and more flexible and open toward new experiences (Lambert, 2003b).

This type of working relationship can empower teachers to be more effective in the classroom and as a decision-making member of the school. Teacher leaders are at the heart of collaboration, being more than willing to open up their classroom doors in order to take advantage of this unique two-fold learning experience. Collaboration does not have to stop with teachers who are confined to one school. Wenger (1998) suggest that teachers can share and revise practice in their own setting and via the Internet across regional, national and international boundaries, in effect creating communities of practice. For Wenger (1998), such communities are given coherence by three dimensions of practice: mutual engagement, a joint enterprise, and a shared repertoire.

Hallinger and Heck (2009) conducted an extensive four-year study looking at collaborative leadership and school improvement. They concluded that "This study provides empirical support for the proposition that collaborative leadership contributes to school improvement through building the school's academic capacity. By academic capacity, we refer to a set of organizational conditions that impact what teachers do in the

classrooms to influence student learning. More specifically, we suggest that leadership acts as a driver in identifying needs and devising strategies to foster school-wide academic changes over time" (Hallinger & Heck, 2009, p. 31). Therefore, collaboration is actually more than a two-fold gain for the observer and the observed; the students benefit from better teaching practices, which in return creates a more effective school for all involved.

Benefits of Teacher Leadership

If collaboration, one piece of teacher leadership, is beneficial to so many stakeholders, then teacher leadership as a whole may be extremely beneficial to all members and aspects of the school. First, teacher leadership is very valuable to the principals of the school. Principals have an excessive number of roles, duties, and responsibilities, and teacher leaders can help alleviate some of the stress that comes along with such an extensive job description. The days of the lone instructional leader are over. We no longer believe that one administrator can serve as the instructional leader for the entire school without the substantial participation of other educators (Lambert, 2002). All stakeholders of the school can be of assistance to the administration, "but the most reliable, useful, proximate, and professional help resides under the roof of the schoolhouse with the teaching staff itself" (Barth, 2001, p.445). A study conducted by Whitaker and Valentine (1993) determined that more effective principals have key teachers whom they regularly go to for input at all levels of decision-making. The less effective principals, in addition to not having teachers to whom they go for input for making decisions, were not able to identify the informal leaders in their schools.

Secondly, students also benefit from teacher leadership and a more democratic view of leadership in schools. As teachers practice forms of school leadership, this creates a ripple effect onto students as teachers enlist student leadership to amplify their own (Barth, 2001). As teachers become leaders in the school, students also seize the opportunity to become leaders in the school. Barth (2001) states that in high performing schools decision-making and leadership are significantly more democratic, and the more the school comes to look, act, and feel like a democracy, the more students come to believe in, practice, and sustain our democratic form of government. Research by Silns and Mulford (2002) has shown that student outcomes are more likely to improve where leadership sources are distributed throughout the school community and where teachers are empowered in areas of importance to them.

The third major benefactor of teacher leadership is the school as a whole. According to Barth (2001), one study of governance patterns within a thousand schools found that in high-performing schools (those with few discipline problems and high pupil achievement), decision-making and leadership are significantly more democratic. The school is a more satisfying place to learn and work due to less discipline problems, which fosters a better learning environment. Due to the higher morale, students and staff are also more willing to carry out the goals of the school, which is a direct benefit to the school as a whole. Also, power and authority is more evenly spread across the school because of the opportunities for larger numbers of teachers to become leaders (Bradley-Levine, 2011). The benefits of teacher leadership to the school can also be seen through a study conducted by Kelley (2011). Kelley reports that “schools that harbor an environment of teacher leadership, often share an understanding of the schools’ mission

and vision, fostering autonomy and promoting closer consensus of understanding regarding teacher leaders and their contributions" (p. 146).

In relation to the school as a whole, teacher leadership also helps in building leadership capacity throughout the entire school. Lambert (2003a) defines leadership capacity as "broad-based, skillful participation in the work of leadership" (p. 4). Lambert (1998) contends that schools must develop its own leadership capacity "in order to stay afloat, assume internal responsibility for reform, and maintain a momentum for self-renewal" (p. 3). One of the goals of teacher leadership is to expand the scope leadership from the appointed leaders within the school and include all stakeholders in leadership, especially the teachers within the school. As teacher leadership becomes more widespread throughout the school, the teachers will begin to understand that their focus needs to move beyond their individual classroom and include the larger whole-school perspective (Katzenmeyer and Moller, 2001). As cited in McMurray (2012, p. 21) "broadening the depth of leadership is necessary to increasing an organization's leadership capacity, which is crucial to long-term sustainability (Harris & Muijs, 2003; Kets De Vries, 2010; Oduro, 2004)". McMurray (2012) also contends that spreading deeper levels of leadership skills throughout the school is necessary in meeting the challenges and requirements that are facing educational organizations.

Next, teachers obviously benefit from teacher leadership. By far, the strongest effects of teacher leadership have been on teacher leaders themselves. As teachers lead, they are reported to grow in their leadership skills and organizational perspectives (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Teacher's voices are heard, and they are able to be a part of the decision-making process, thus having more control over decisions and changes that get made within the school. "Teachers become fully alive when their schools and districts

provide opportunities for skillful participation, inquiry, dialogue, and reflection. They become more fully alive in the company of others" (Lambert, 2003, p. 422). These leadership opportunities for teachers can also help to prevent burnout and allow teachers to "help shape their own schools and, thereby, their own destinies as educators" (Barth, 2001, p. 445). Teacher leadership may also be the solution to the drift and detachment experienced by many teachers. The rationale being that involvement in setting direction and supporting professional and school improvement can increase the meaning of teachers' work, which, in turn, can spark higher degrees of engagement (Duke, 1994). In a study conducted by Edlow (2008), the findings reported that teacher leaders gained personal and professional growth have outstanding instructional strategies.

The last major benefit of teacher leadership is aiding change in schools. Change is extremely hard to implement in schools because people get comfortable in current places and roles and find it overwhelming to make big changes. Also, in the past, change was pushed onto teachers without their input, which is a major factor in resisting change. When teachers have a voice through teacher leaders, their ideas and opinions are sought out by administration, which makes change more feasible because teachers are more likely to buy-in to change when they feel that the change was partly their idea. Holden (2008) points out that developing a sense of community and facilitating dialogue are fundamental to sustainable change. The rest of the staff will also be more likely to support change if they see their teacher leaders adopting and implementing it. Highly respected teacher leaders can help encourage late adopters of change, thus creating a smoother transition. "Recognizing and using the informal leadership of the most widely thought of teachers and putting them in a position to be the flag carriers is the best way to

implement new programs, curriculum, or beliefs" (Whitaker, 1995, p. 357). In a study conducted by Edlow (2008), the findings suggest that teacher leadership efforts ensures that lasting reform change is known and practiced so that it is able to thrive.

Principal's Role in Fostering Teacher Leaders

When a teacher possesses the qualities of a teacher leader and seems to not be using those qualities, there are several things that the principal of the school can do to help foster these teachers become teacher leaders. Regardless of the beliefs principals espouse, unless structures are established to encourage teacher leadership, there will be only a token use of this valuable resource (Moller & Katzenmeyer, 1996). The relationship established between teacher leaders and their principals is consistently identified as a strong influence on teacher leadership (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). "Where we have seen teacher leadership begin to flourish, principals have actively supported it or, at least, encouraged it" (Crowther et al., 2002, p. 22).

Barth (2001) suggests that there are eight things a principal can do to help foster teacher leaders within their school. The first is to expect teacher leadership. "The participation of teachers as leaders is much more likely to occur when their principal openly and frequently articulates this vision at meetings, in conversations, in newsletters, in memos to the faculty, and at community meetings: 'Here, we *expect* all teachers to lead'" (Barth, 2001, p. 448).

The second thing that the principal can do to help foster teacher leaders is to relinquish control. Principals have to be willing to hand over some of their power and decision-making opportunities to teachers in order for them to become leaders within their school. Teachers have become decision-makers too, and principals would be wise

to involve them in every way possible in resolving the issues they face daily (Rooney, 2004).

The third strategy is to foster trust. The principal has to earn the trust of the teachers in the school before they are going to make themselves vulnerable in leadership positions. The teachers need to know that their principal stands behind them and the decisions that they make. The principal also needs to have trust in the teacher leaders to show that they are confident in their decision-making skills and leadership attributes.

The fourth way to foster teacher leaders is empowerment. Principals can empower teachers by enlisting their help solving problems. Instead of the principal devising a plan to solve a problem and then asking teachers to implement the plan, teachers should be a part of the decision-making process and help devise the plan. Principals should invite teachers to lead by making them aware of where the greatest needs exist (Phelps, 2008). .

The fifth strategy of principals that develop teacher leadership is to include all of them. Instead of always going to the same teachers in the building for help with certain situations, it is important to include as many staff members as possible. The principals can find out what area each teacher is most skilled in and go to them for help when those skills are needed instead of burning out the same teachers. When every teacher is invited to be a leader and is asked to take on leadership roles based on their areas of interest, then those teachers who rise to the occasion will more likely be supported by their colleagues (Moller & Katzenmeyer, 1996).

The sixth factor in fostering teacher leadership by the principal is to protect. Teacher leadership brings with it some vulnerability and risks. Teachers need to know

that the principal is going to do his or her best to protect them from the assaults of their colleagues and others who may not agree with their ideas and decisions. "When it's clear to teachers that their leadership is protected, they will be more willing to exercise it" (Barth, 2001, p. 448).

The seventh factor is to recognize teacher leaders. If a teacher leader does something of merit within the school, it is extremely important that the principal recognizes this person for their efforts and lets them and others know how grateful they are for their efforts. The principal needs to be conscience not to show recognition only by giving more tasks and additional responsibilities; this may discourage teachers from making further efforts (Moller & Katzenmeyer, 1996).

The final thing that a principal can do to help foster teacher leadership is to share responsibility for failure. If the efforts of a teacher leader fall short, it is important that the principal not place blame with the teacher because this will cause other teachers in the building to resist taking risks. Instead, the principal should share in the failure and use the situation as an opportunity to learn from mistakes instead of placing blame.

Adding to the literature of the principal's role in fostering teacher leadership is a study conducted by Burke (2009). Burke "organized the findings thematically in order to develop a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon of principal leadership as it is related to building teacher leadership capacity" (p. 83). The themes that emerged from the study include: empowerment, culture of continuous improvement, collaboration, relationships, clear expectations, professional development, support for teachers, vision, organizational structures, and challenges.

Along with the principal, there are many qualities of the school as a whole that help foster more teacher leaders. First, time needs to be set aside for teachers to meet to plan and discuss issues such as developing curriculum, developing school-wide plans, leading study groups, organizing visits to other schools, collaborating with Higher Education Institutions, and collaborating with colleagues (Harris, 2003). Instead of having a normal faculty meeting, that time could be turned into collaboration time. Professional development on teacher leadership should also be utilized to help foster teacher leaders. There may be a teacher on staff with all of the qualities of a teacher leader and the desire to do more; they just may not know how to use those qualities to serve as a teacher leader. Professional development sessions could give that person the information needed to be able to move into a teacher leadership role.

Barriers to Teacher Leadership

As with other forms of leadership, there are barriers to teacher leadership in schools. First, there is a lack of agreement and often a misunderstanding of what a teacher leader actually is. Some think that it "is simply a modernized way to seduce teachers to take on additional tasks and responsibilities without the commensurate increase in their salary or time allowance" (Fitzgerald & Gunter, 2008, p. 334). Those who hold this cynical view will resist taking on teacher leadership roles because they may feel as though they are just being taken advantage of instead of being fostered as a vital part of the leadership team. One particular area of difficulty resides in the struggle of clarifying domains of teacher leadership, domains of principal leadership, and areas of common ground (Teitel, 1996). This could lead to administrators having a skewed view of teacher leadership as well. If they are unaware of how to properly distribute

responsibility and authority, then teacher leadership could "become nothing more than informed delegation" (Harris, 2003, p. 319). Simply delegating tasks and responsibilities is not the way to foster long-lasting, ongoing teacher leadership. Administrators may have the philosophy that "if we just find the right 'carrot', the right incentive package, we can coax teachers to take on leadership roles. Such attitudes produce short term, shallow, and unsustainable results" (Lambert, 2003, p. 421).

A second barrier according to Barth (2001) is that teacher's roles may already be overloaded. Teachers are becoming responsible for additive roles year after year. They are expected to teach their courses, sponsor clubs, communicate with parents, oversee after school activities, and serve on committees to name a few examples, usually with a lack of rewards or incentives (Little, 1988). Very rarely is a teacher ever told that they are no longer responsible for something. Roles are always add-ons and never take-a-ways. Therefore, when teachers are approached about taking on formal or informal teacher leader roles, they will sometimes resist because they feel as if they cannot fit any more items on their schedules (Barth, 2001).

The next barrier is related to having too many demands; it is the lack of time (Barth, 2001). Insufficient time for leadership work has long been noted as a challenge (Moller & Katzenmeyer, 1996). Time is precious because there is nothing you can do to create more of it. With all of the responsibilities of a teacher, there does not seem to be enough time in the day to get everything done and to do it well. Teachers have lives outside of the classroom and home responsibilities, so sometimes it may be impossible for them to take on additional roles at school, which of course will take time to enact, when time is a scarce resource. Edlow (2008) reports that teacher leaders who took part

in a study reported time as a constraint to teacher leadership because they were not given enough time during the school day to fulfill teacher leadership roles.

Barth (2001) suggests that tests and accountability is another barrier to teacher leadership. With so much focus on standardized tests and the scores that are being produced at each school, teachers feel pressure to put more of their time into classroom procedures and lessons mapped to these tests. This results in less time fulfilling teacher leadership roles because of the accountability that falls back on them when test scores are revealed. Principals also feel the pressure of accountability. They may feel that they are unable to relinquish any responsibilities and decision- making power to teacher leaders, because in the end, the success or failures of those responsibilities and decisions will ultimately fall back on the administration (Barth, 2001).

The last barrier to teacher leadership as presented by Barth (2001) is colleagues. Some teachers are very accustomed to the traditional hierarchical form of leadership and are not encouraging when a colleague steps as a teacher leader. That teacher leader could be ostracized by their colleagues because the other teachers feel threatened that they are no longer on the same level with the teacher leader. When a teacher tries to distinguish themselves as a teacher leader, they are putting themselves at risk that their efforts may not be well taken by their peers. There is also a shift in the nature of collegial relationships. "What was once a comfortable, primary social relationship with teaching peers shifts to include implicit or explicit instructional, professional, or organizational expectations" (York-Barr & Duke, 2004, p. 283). A negative effect of these relationship shifts can be a sense of greater distance from and even a loss of specific, valued

relationships with colleagues. Not only may this threaten the likelihood of teachers being allowed to lead, it may diminish their desire to lead (York-Barr & Duke, 2004).

Can Teacher Leadership Be Developed?

Lambert (1998) states "Everyone has the potential and right to work as a leader. Leading is skilled and complicated work that every member of the school community can learn" (p. 422). Ovington, Diamantes, and Roby (2002) point out that "The willingness to serve as a team member is not enough to ensure the success of the school-based management process. The participants must learn the requisite skills for the process of working together to restructure or redesign schools" (p. 3). Wetzler (2010) adds by saying that "teachers are made – not born – and that constant learning will be the key to their success" (p. 27). We ask teachers to assume leadership roles without any preparation or coaching, because we assume they appear to intuitively know how to work with their colleagues (Katzenmayer & Moller, 2001), but evident throughout the literature is a call for more formal preparation and support of teacher leaders (Ovando, 1996).

If everyone has the potential to be a leader, then it is less important to try to seek out the teachers that seem to have the necessary qualities to be a teacher leader and more important to try to develop in all teachers the skills to become teacher leaders. The Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, reported that in 2010, there were 461,700 projected K-12 teaching job opportunities throughout the United States (2012). These new teachers will need training to develop skills such as: team-building, awareness of leadership behaviors, problem solving techniques, and critical thinking abilities

(Ovington, Diamantes, & Roby, 2002) before they will be able to assume the many emerging roles of teacher leaders.

Ovington, Diamantes, and Roby (2002) revisited an earlier investigation of a successful graduate program called the Teacher Leader Program at Wright State University in Dayton, Ohio. This program has been very successful for the past 24 years, producing many teacher leaders. "Superintendents tell us repeatedly that teachers who teach in their school districts who have graduated from the Teacher Leader Program are able to assume more responsibility for leadership than before they began the program. They report they note a difference in the teachers' attitudes toward children and their ability to learn. They further tell us that teachers who would not speak up and participate in decision making at the building level, are now taking a stand and asserting their views based on research and educational literature" (Ovington, Diamantes, & Roby, 2002, p. 393).

Florida began committing resources to support the development of teacher leaders through their state implemented Leadership Development for Teachers (LDT) program in 1991. This training program was established to teach leadership skills to teachers who do not aspire to attain an administrative position but still want to influence teaching and learning in their school (Hart & Baptist, 1996). After surveying teachers who had completed the program, they reported "feeling more comfortable expressing why they agreed or disagreed with something, listening to colleagues better, developing a better relationship with coworkers, and feeling more confident" (Hart & Baptist, 1996, p. 92). Administrators of the teachers who completed the program were also interviewed, and they reported teachers having better problem solving skills as well as "having a vision,

being dependable, having interpersonal skills, generating ideas, and being organizationally adept" (Hart & Baptist, 1996, p. 94). This evidence just further reiterates the need for all teachers to receive some form of teacher leadership training so they are better prepared to take on the new, emerging roles of teacher leaders.

After only two studies were found on teacher leadership, this showed a gap in the research on this topic in education. Given that colleges and universities play a critical role in the development of teacher leaders due to the fact that in-service teachers are trained in colleges and universities, there needs to be more research conducted on the preparation of teacher leaders and teacher leader programs within these institutions.

Literature Review Visual

The findings within the research have led the researcher to create the following visual as a means of summarizing the literature review, which can be seen in figure 1. The visual distinguishes between the formal and informal roles in which a teacher leader may fill and lists a few of the important qualities it takes to be a teacher leader. Lastly, the visual shows how teacher leadership can be beneficial to principals, the students within the school, the school as a whole, and to the teachers.

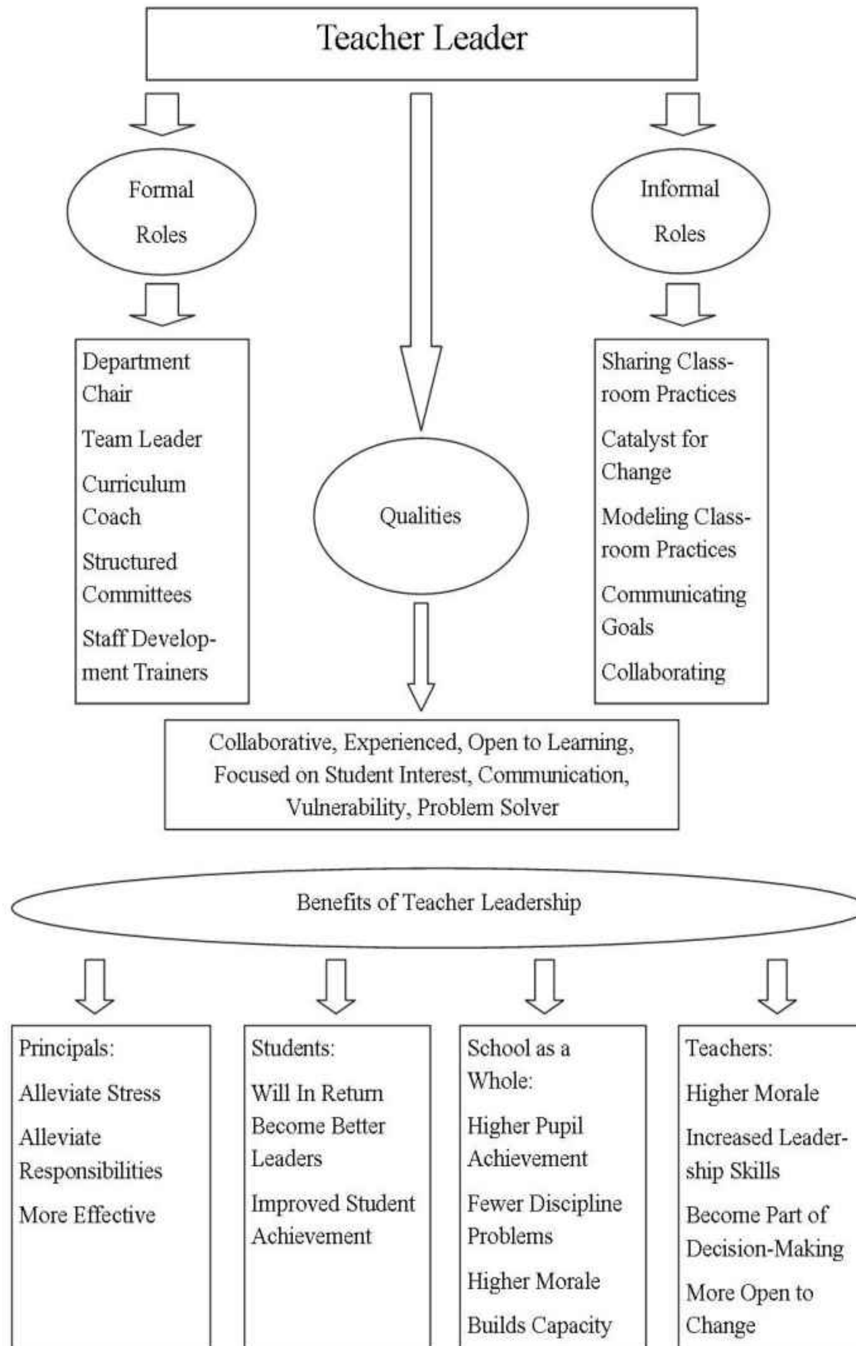


Figure 1. Literature Review Visual

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODS

Background of the Study

For the purpose of reorienting the reader, this chapter begins with an overview of the purpose of the study and questions. A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform (1983), a report of President Ronald Reagan's National Commission on Excellence in Education, is considered a landmark event in modern American educational history. Among other things, the report contributed to the ever-growing sense that American schools are failing, and it touched off a wave of local, state, and federal reform efforts. Since A Nation at Risk, most national reform reports have recommended widespread teacher leadership (Barth, 2001) as a means to turn around failing schools. A second national report catalyzing education reform efforts was published by the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986). There were many proposals made by the Carnegie Task Force to reform America's schools, but one of the main ideas was the concept of a teacher leader. The proposal set forth by the task force was to "find ways of making the skill, wisdom, and knowledge of the school's best teachers available both to the principal and to other teachers" (Tucker & Mandel, 1986, p. 27).

Although researchers agree that teacher leadership is a critical factor in the reformation of schools (Boles & Troen, 1996; Smylie, Conley, & Marks, 2002; Moller & Katzenmeyer, 1996), helps to eliminate hierarchical structures in schools (Murphy, 2005), and supports other school reform efforts such as professional learning communities (Horn, 2005), research conducted on the preparation of creating teacher leaders at the college/university level is conspicuous by its absence. There is a very

limited amount of research conducted on the process of educating teachers to become teacher leaders within their classrooms, schools, and school districts. Given the scarcity of research on the development of teacher leadership, research needs to be conducted on the structure of teacher leadership programs at colleges and universities to have a clear understanding of the goals and desired outcomes of each program and to find commonalities and discrepancies between programs, as well as how these goals align with the emerging conceptions of teacher leadership.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study is to conduct a descriptive analysis on Master's in Teacher Leadership programs who are members of the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). The study will be describe the types of institutions in which teacher leadership programs exist using common university categories and classifications as specified by the Carnegie Foundation. The study will also describe what comprises these teacher leadership programs in terms of courses and general program descriptors, looking for commonalities and differences. Finally, the study will provide evidence on the goals these programs hopes to espouse to their students based on their required core coursework and syllabi, again looking for commonalities and discrepancies between programs and comparing them to emerging concepts of teacher leadership. Specifically, this study will seek to answer the following questions:

1) In what types of institutions do Master's in Teacher Leadership programs exist and where are they located?

2) What courses and general program descriptors comprise Master's in Teacher Leadership programs?
3) Are the embedded goals of Teacher Leader programs aligned with teacher leadership standards?

Research Designs

Most research falls into three different "frameworks" for design: quantitative, qualitative, or mixed methods (Creswell, 2003). Quantitative research relies heavily on "linear attributes, measurements, and statistical analysis" (Stake, 2010, p. 11). In quantitative research, the findings are drawn primarily from the aggregate of many individual observations (Stake, 2010). Where there is a hypothesis to test, a quantitative approach is required and randomized controlled trials offer the route to the strongest evidence (Fade, 2003).

However, where little is known about a subject or where the researcher wants to understand the nature or meaning of human experiences, a qualitative approach offers the opportunity to gain deeper insights (Fade, 2003). Qualitative research relies primarily on "human perception and understanding" (Stake, 2010, p. 11) and is a broad approach to the study of social phenomena (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Qualitative research takes place in the natural world, uses multiple methods that are interactive and humanistic, focuses on context, is emergent rather than tightly prefigured, and is fundamentally interpretive (Marshall & Rossman, 2011).

Mixed-methods research is focused on using multiple means and techniques to gain knowledge about a problem (Creswell, 2003). A mixed method approach makes use of both quantitative and qualitative data in the same research study, often emphasizes

quantitative analysis and display of data, uses a generic qualitative approach, and uses a writing style that is objective and neutral (Lichtman, 2011).

Rationale for Selecting a Mixed-Methods Approach

A mixed-methods approach was selected for this study because using multiple methods, allows the researcher to balance the strengths and weaknesses of each approach (Abowitz & Toole, 2010). Combining multiple methods in this way, a form of triangulation takes place within a larger methodological context (Abowitz & Toole, 2010). Using multiple or mixed methods "affects not only measurement but all stages of research" (Brewer & Hunter 1989, p. 21). A quantitative approach will be used to answer research questions one and two, where frequencies will be reported, looking for themes within the research. A qualitative approach will be used in order to answer research question three, where a document-analysis of syllabi will be conducted, again looking for embedded themes within the required coursework.

The primary rationale for using this combination of sources of data is that it was felt that a complete picture could not be generated by any one method alone. Each source of data represents an important piece in the research study. The goal of the quantitative data is produce a set of themes that emerge when researching the format of Master's in Teacher Leadership programs in regards to what types of institutions these programs are housed, what courses comprises these programs, and the general program descriptors. The goal of the qualitative data is to provide an in depth view of the embedded knowledge, skills, and dispositions teacher leadership programs hope to instill within their students, based on a document-analysis on course syllabi.

Document-Analysis Research

A document-analysis is an efficient, unobtrusive, convenient, and low-cost method of obtaining information on program goals, program issues, and basic statistics (Caulley, 1983). A review of literature on document-analysis reveals a diversity of reasons for undertaking such studies. According to Caulley (1983), a document-analysis can be used to collect data for a program evaluation. The review of document-analysis studies reveals researchers' use of a variety of methods and techniques including an inductive method, allowing the potential classification categories to emerge as the content of the documents is examined (Hutchinson et al., 2001). The majority of studies use descriptive statistics to report analyses. For example, frequency counts, percentages, and cross-tabulations are common (MacKeracher & Jantzi, 1985).

Population

The target population includes all of The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) colleges and universities that currently offer a Master's of Arts in Teacher Leadership Program. The compete list of NCATE member schools will be obtained from the NCATE website, where they currently have 656 colleges of education listed as members. The website of each member institution will then be visited to research their current education program offerings, looking for a Teacher Leadership Master's program. All NCATE colleges and universities who report on their website that they offer a Master's in Teacher Leadership program will be included in the sample.

Sample

For research questions one and two, the entire population of NCATE institutions who communicate on their website that they currently offer a Master's in Teacher

Leadership program will become the sample. For research question three, probability sampling will be used. Probability sampling is when each member of the population has an equal likelihood of being selected to be part of the sample (Jackson, 2009). The type of probability sampling that this research study will employ is random sampling. First, the population of all NCATE institutions offering as Master's in Teacher Leadership will be culled down to include only those that publish course syllabi on-line. A probability sample of three to five institutions from the access to course syllabi online subgroup will be randomly selected, assuming more than three to five institutions meet these criteria.

Procedures for Data Collection

The purpose of this descriptive analysis is to research what comprises Master's in Teacher Leadership programs in terms of the types of institutions where these programs are housed and where they are located, the general requirements for the programs and the desired program goals embedded in the coursework.

Data Collection for Research Question One

To answer research question one: In what types of institutions do Master's in Teacher Leadership programs exist, the Carnegie Foundation classifications will serve as the means to categorize the different institutions. The Carnegie Classification has been the leading framework for recognizing and describing institutional diversity in U.S. higher education for the past four decades. Starting in 1970, the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education developed a classification of colleges and universities to support its program of research and policy analysis. Derived from empirical data on colleges and universities, the Carnegie Classification was originally published in 1973, and subsequently updated in 1976, 1987, 1994, 2000, 2005, and 2010 to reflect changes

among colleges and universities. This framework has been widely used in the study of higher education, both as a way to represent and control for institutional differences, and also in the design of research studies to ensure adequate representation of sampled institutions, students, or faculty. To ensure continuity of the classification framework and to allow comparison across years, the 2010 Classification update retains the same structure of six parallel classifications, initially adopted in 2005. They are as follows: Basic Classification (the traditional Carnegie Classification Framework), Undergraduate and Graduate Instructional Program classifications, Enrollment Profile and Undergraduate Profile classifications, and Size & Setting classification. These classifications provide different lenses through which to view U.S. colleges and universities, offering researchers greater analytic flexibility. These classifications were updated using the most recent national data available as of 2010, and collectively, they depict the most current landscape of U.S. colleges and universities (http://classifications.carnegiefoundation.org/). The Carnegie Foundation website and the website of the institution will be visited in order to obtain the information regarding which classifications each institution falls under. The information obtained will then be placed into a spreadsheet in which frequencies of classifications will be calculated to find common themes and differences among the institutions. The classifications obtained from the Carnegie Foundation webpage, (http://classifications.carnegiefoundation.org/) were reviewed and condensed according to the needs of the study. The four classifications and their descriptions that this study will employ are as follows:

1. Graduate Instructional Program Classification

- S-Postbac/Ed: Single Postbaccalaureate (education)
  These institutions awarded master's degrees in education but not in other fields.
- Postbac-Comp: Postbaccalaureate comprehensive
  These institutions awarded master's degrees in the humanities, social sciences, and STEM[1] fields, as well as degrees in one or more professional fields.
- Postbac-A&S: Postbaccalaureate, Arts & Sciences dominant
  These institutions awarded master's degrees in some arts and sciences fields. They may also award master's or professional degrees in other fields, but in lesser numbers.
- Postbac-A&S/Ed: Postbaccalaureate with Arts & Sciences (education dominant)
  These institutions awarded master's degrees in both arts and sciences and professional fields, and the field with the largest number of graduate degrees was education.
- Postbac-A&S/Bus: Postbaccalaureate with Arts & Sciences (business dominant)
  These institutions awarded master's degrees in both arts and sciences and professional fields, and the field with the largest number of graduate degrees was business.
- Postbac-A&S/Other: Postbaccalaureate with Arts & Sciences (other dominant fields)
  These institutions awarded master's degrees in both arts and sciences and professional fields, and the field with the largest number of graduate degrees was a professional field other than business or education.
- Postbac-Prof/Ed: Postbaccalaureate professional (education dominant)
  These institutions awarded master's or professional degrees in professional fields only, and the field with the largest number of graduate degrees was education.
- Postbac-Prof/Bus: Postbaccalaureate professional (business dominant)
  These institutions awarded master's or professional degrees in professional fields only, and the field with the largest number of graduate degrees was business.
- Postbac-Prof/Other: Postbaccalaureate professional (other dominant fields)
  These institutions awarded master's or professional degrees in professional fields only, and the field with the largest number of graduate degrees was a field other than business or education.
- S-Doc/Ed: Single doctoral (education)
  These institutions awarded research doctoral degrees in education but not in other fields, they may have more extensive offerings at the master's or professional level.
- S-Doc/Other: Single doctoral (other field)
  These institutions awarded research doctoral degrees in a single field other than education, they may have more extensive offerings at the master's or professional level.
- CompDoc/MedVet: Comprehensive doctoral with medical/veterinary
  These institutions awarded research doctoral degrees in the humanities, social

[1] STEM: science, technology, engineering, and mathematics

sciences, and STEM fields, as well as in medicine, dentistry, and/or veterinary medicine. They also offer professional education in other health professions or in fields such as business, education, engineering, law, public policy, or social work.

- CompDoc/NMedVet: Comprehensive doctoral with no medical/veterinary
  These institutions awarded research doctoral degrees in the humanities, social sciences, and STEM fields. They also offer professional education in fields such as business, education, engineering, law, public policy, social work, or health professions other than medicine, dentistry, or veterinary medicine.
- Doc/HSS: Doctoral, humanities/social sciences dominant
  These institutions awarded research doctoral degrees in a range of fields, and the largest number of research doctorates were in the humanities or social sciences. They may also offer professional education at the doctoral level or in fields such as law or medicine.
- Doc/STEM: Doctoral, STEM dominant
  These institutions awarded research doctoral degrees in a range of fields, and the largest number of research doctorates were in the STEM fields. They may also offer professional education at the doctoral level or in fields such as law or medicine.
- Doc/Prof: Doctoral, professions dominant
  These institutions awarded research doctoral degrees in a range of fields, and the largest number of research doctorates were in professions other than engineering (such as education, health professions, public policy, or social work). They may also offer professional education in law or medicine.

2. Enrollment Profile Classification

- VHU: Very high undergraduate
  Fall enrollment data show both undergraduate and graduate/professional students, with the latter group accounting for less than 10 percent of FTE[2] enrollment.
- HU: High undergraduate
  Fall enrollment data show both undergraduate and graduate/professional students, with the latter group accounting for 10–24 percent of FTE enrollment.
- MU: Majority undergraduate
  Fall enrollment data show both undergraduate and graduate/professional students, with the latter group accounting for 25–49 percent of FTE enrollment.
- MGP: Majority graduate/professional
  Fall enrollment data show both undergraduate and graduate/professional students, with the latter group accounting for at least half of FTE enrollment.
- ExGP: Exclusively graduate/professional
  Fall enrollment data show only graduate/professional students enrolled.

[2] FTE: Full-time equivalent enrollment was calculated as full-time plus one-third part-time.

3. Size & Setting Classification

- VS4/NR: Very small four-year, primarily nonresidential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of fewer than 1,000 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. Fewer than 25 percent of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus**[3] and/or fewer than 50 percent attend full time (includes exclusively distance education institutions).
- VS4/R: Very small four-year, primarily residential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of fewer than 1,000 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. 25-49 percent of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and at least 50 percent attend full time.
- VS4/HR: Very small four-year, highly residential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of fewer than 1,000 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. At least half of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and at least 80 percent attend full time.
- S4/NR: Small four-year, primarily nonresidential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of 1,000–2,999 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. Fewer than 25 percent of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and/or fewer than 50 percent attend full time (includes exclusively distance education institutions).
- S4/R: Small four-year, primarily residential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of 1,000–2,999 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. 25-49 percent of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and at least 50 percent attend full time.
- S4/HR: Small four-year, highly residential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of 1,000–2,999 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. At least half of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and at least 80 percent attend full time.
- M4/NR: Medium four-year, primarily nonresidential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of 3,000–9,999 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. Fewer than 25 percent of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and/or fewer than 50 percent attend full time (includes exclusively distance education institutions).
- M4/R: Medium four-year, primarily residential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of 3,000–9,999 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. 25-49 percent of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and at least 50 percent attend full time.
- M4/HR: Medium four-year, highly residential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of 3,000–9,999 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. At least half of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and at least 80 percent attend full time.
- L4/NR: Large four-year, primarily nonresidential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of at least 10,000 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. Fewer than 25 percent of

[3] ** On campus is defined as institutionally-owned, -controlled, or - affiliated housing.

degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and/or fewer than 50 percent attend full time (includes exclusively distance education institutions).

- L4/R: Large four-year, primarily residential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of at least 10,000 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. 25-49 percent of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and at least 50 percent attend full time.
- L4/HR: Large four-year, highly residential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of at least 10,000 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. At least half of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and at least 80 percent attend full time.

4. Basic Classification

I. Doctorate-granting Universities. Includes institutions that awarded at least 20 research doctoral degrees during the update year (excluding doctoral-level degrees that qualify recipients for entry into professional practice, such as the JD, MD, PharmD, DPT, etc.). Excludes Special Focus Institutions and Tribal Colleges.

- RU/VH: Research Universities (very high research activity)
- RU/H: Research Universities (high research activity)
- DRU: Doctoral/Research Universities

II. Master's Colleges and Universities. Generally includes institutions that awarded at least 50 master's degrees and fewer than 20 doctoral degrees during the update year (with occasional exceptions – see Carnegie's Methodology). Excludes Special Focus Institutions and Tribal Colleges.

- Master's/L: Master's Colleges and Universities (larger programs)
- Master's/M: Master's Colleges and Universities (medium programs)
- Master's/S: Master's Colleges and Universities (smaller programs)

III. Baccalaureate Colleges. Includes institutions where baccalaureate degrees represent at least 10 percent of all undergraduate degrees and where fewer than 50 master's degrees or 20 doctoral degrees were awarded during the update year. (Some institutions above the master's degree threshold are also included; see Carnegie's Methodology.) Excludes Special Focus Institutions and Tribal Colleges.

- Bac/A&S: Baccalaureate Colleges—Arts & Sciences
- Bac/Diverse: Baccalaureate Colleges—Diverse Fields
- Bac/Assoc: Baccalaureate/Associate's Colleges

IV. Focus Institutions. Institutions awarding baccalaureate or higher-level degrees where a high concentration of degrees (above 75%) is in a single field or set of related fields. Excludes Tribal Colleges.

- Spec/Faith: Theological seminaries, Bible colleges, and other faith-related institutions
- Spec/Medical: Medical schools and medical centers
- Spec/Health: Other health profession schools
- Spec/Eng: Schools of engineering
- Spec/Tech: Other technology-related schools
- Spec/Bus: Schools of business and management
- Spec/Arts: Schools of art, music, and design
- Spec/Law: Schools of law
- Spec/Other: Other special-focus institutions

V. Tribal Colleges. Colleges and universities that are members of the American Indian Higher Education Consortium, as identified in Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) Institutional Characteristics.

Also as a part of question one, the geographic location of the institutions of where these programs are housed will also be documented. For this portion of question one, the 2010 Census Regions and Divisions of the United States will be used. The Census has divided the United States into four regions: Northeast, Midwest, South and West, along with nine divisions under the regions. Each institution will be placed into the region and division as deemed by the 2010 Census; a spreadsheet of the information will be created and frequencies will be calculated to determine common themes of location that emerge. A map of the United States regions as deemed by the 2010 Census can be viewed in Appendix 1, and the list of states by region and division can be seen in Appendix 2.

Data Collection for Research Question Two

In order to answer research question two: what comprises Master's in Teacher Leadership programs, the website of each institution will be visited where the basic components of the Teacher Leadership Program will be described. Specifically, the researcher will describe the following program descriptors: total number of hours required, number of core hours required, number of elective hours required, full or part-time student status, campus or online course offerings, and whether there is a culminating

project requirement. This question will also seek to answer what types of courses comprise the program. The inductive method, which allows the potential classification categories to emerge as the content of the documents are examined (Hutchinson et al., 2001), will be employed to answer this portion of research question two. The findings will then be placed into a spreadsheet where frequencies will be calculated to determine common themes and differences within the categories and across programs.

Data Collection for Research Question Three

In order to answer research question three: are the embedded goals of Teacher Leader programs aligned with emerging concepts of teacher leaders, a probability sample of three to five institutions from the access to course syllabi online subgroup will be obtained. A document-analysis will be conducted on the syllabi of each of the institutions looking for the knowledge, skills, and dispositions each institution espouses to instill in their teacher leaders. A spreadsheet of the findings will be created, and the researcher will be looking for common themes and differences as to the goals of these teacher leadership programs. These goals will be compared to the Teacher Leader Model Standards as developed by the Teacher Leadership Exploratory Consortium, looking for similarities and differences between the goals of teacher leadership as deemed by the Teacher Leadership Exploratory Consortium and the actual learning outcomes of Teacher Leader Programs. The Teacher Leader Model Standards (Consortium, 2008) are as follows:

- Domain I: Fostering a Collaborative Culture to Support Educator Development and Student Learning: The teacher leader is well versed in adult learning theory and uses that knowledge to create a community of collective responsibility within

his or her school. In promoting this collaborative culture among fellow teachers, administrators, and other school leaders, the teacher leader ensures improvement in educator instruction and, consequently, student learning.

- Domain II: Accessing and Using Research to Improve Practice and Student Learning: The teacher leader keeps abreast of the latest research about teaching effectiveness and student learning, and implements best practices where appropriate. He or she models the use of systematic inquiry as a critical component of teachers' ongoing learning and development.
- Domain III: Promoting Professional Learning for Continuous Improvement: The teacher leader understands that the processes of teaching and learning are constantly evolving. The teacher leader designs and facilitates job-embedded professional development opportunities that are aligned with school improvement goals.
- Domain IV: Facilitating Improvements in Instruction and Student Learning: The teacher leader possesses a deep understanding of teaching and learning, and models an attitude of continuous learning and reflective practice for colleagues. The teacher leader works collaboratively with fellow teachers to constantly improve instructional practices.
- Domain V: Promoting the Use of Assessments and Data for School and District Improvement: The teacher leader is knowledgeable about the design of assessments, both formative and summative. The teacher leader works with colleagues to analyze data and interpret results to inform goals and to improve student learning.

- Domain VI: Improving Outreach and Collaboration with Families and Community: The teacher leader understands the impact that families, cultures, and communities have on student learning. As a result, the teacher leader seeks to promote a sense of partnership among these different groups toward the common goal of excellent education.
- Domain VII: Advocating for Student Learning and the Profession: The teacher leader understands the landscape of education policy and can identify key players at the local, state, and national levels. The teacher leader advocates for the teaching profession and for policies that benefit student learning.

Data Analysis

The data will be analyzed using descriptive statistics (frequencies, means, and percentages). The data will be entered in an Excel spreadsheet, and the Excel statistical tools will be utilized to analyze the data. Emergent themes about the composition of Master's in Teacher Leadership Programs and the desired outcome goals in future teacher leaders will be reported at the aggregate level.

Limitations

The major limitation to this study is the relying solely on program information reported on the Internet. There will be no way of knowing if more up-to-date information would be available if other resources were employed. The information found online may be inaccurate or outdated due to the lack of recent updates made to the websites by the institutions. Different themes could possibly emerge if a larger sample size were able to be utilized. Research question three also suffers a limitation by using information only found on the Internet. Only course syllabi posted to the institution's webpage will be

available for the document analysis, limiting the potential population sample. Finally, syllabi only communicate espoused course goals and activities. These may or may not be aligned with the enacted curriculum.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to conduct a descriptive analysis of Master's in Teacher Leadership programs who are accredited by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). The study described the types of institutions in which teacher leadership programs exist using common university categories and classifications. The study also identified what comprises these teacher leadership programs in terms of general program and course descriptors. Finally, this study focused on whether the goals and objectives of the core courses of these programs are aligned with the Teacher Leader Standards as deemed by the Teacher Leader Exploratory Consortium. Commonalities and differences between programs are emphasized, and assessments made regarding the alignment of these programs' emphasis to those needed by emerging conceptions of teacher leadership.

Description of Sample

The websites of the 656 National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education member schools, as listed on the NCATE website, were accessed. Specifically, their graduate programs were researched, looking for programs that offered a Master's in Teacher Leadership. Of the 656 NCATE schools, 28 of these institutions offered a program focusing on Teacher Leadership as a Master's degree. The sample for research questions one and two includes all 28 of these NCATE institutions. For research question three, there were three institutions from the 28 in the sample that made the core

course syllabi available online to the others outside of their institution. Those three institutions became the sample for research question three.

Research Questions Results

Research Question One

> In what types of institutions do Master's in Teacher Leadership programs exist, and where are they located?

In order to answer the first part of research question one, in what types of institutions do Master's in Teacher Leadership programs exist, the Carnegie Foundation Classifications were modified to fit the purpose of this study and used to classify the sample institutions. The Carnegie Foundation website was accessed, and each sample institution was researched. Their classifications were recorded in a spreadsheet in which frequencies were calculated. To answer the second part of research question one, where are the institutions located that offer a Master's in Teacher Leadership program, the 2010 Census Bureau classifications were used. The state in which each sample institution is located was recorded and placed into a spreadsheet under the correct region classification and division classification for that state, where frequencies were then calculated.

Carnegie Foundation Classifications

Graduate Instructional Program Classification

The first Carnegie Foundation classification that was researched was the graduate instructional program classification. The following guidelines were used to classify the institutions:

- S-Postbac/Ed: Single Postbaccalaureate (education)
  These institutions awarded master's degrees in education but not in other fields.

- Postbac-Comp: Postbaccalaureate comprehensive
  These institutions awarded master's degrees in the humanities, social sciences, and STEM fields, as well as degrees in one or more professional fields.
- Postbac-A&S: Postbaccalaureate, Arts & Sciences dominant
  These institutions awarded master's degrees in some arts and sciences fields. They may also award master's or professional degrees in other fields, but in lesser numbers.
- Postbac-A&S/Ed: Postbaccalaureate with Arts & Sciences (education dominant)
  These institutions awarded master's degrees in both arts and sciences and professional fields, and the field with the largest number of graduate degrees was education.
- Postbac-A&S/Bus: Postbaccalaureate with Arts & Sciences (business dominant)
  These institutions awarded master's degrees in both arts and sciences and professional fields, and the field with the largest number of graduate degrees was business.
- Postbac-A&S/Other: Postbaccalaureate with Arts & Sciences (other dominant fields)
  These institutions awarded master's degrees in both arts and sciences and professional fields, and the field with the largest number of graduate degrees was a professional field other than business or education.
- Postbac-Prof/Ed: Postbaccalaureate professional (education dominant)
  These institutions awarded master's or professional degrees in professional fields only, and the field with the largest number of graduate degrees was education.
- Postbac-Prof/Bus: Postbaccalaureate professional (business dominant)
  These institutions awarded master's or professional degrees in professional fields only, and the field with the largest number of graduate degrees was business.
- Postbac-Prof/Other: Postbaccalaureate professional (other dominant fields)
  These institutions awarded master's or professional degrees in professional fields only, and the field with the largest number of graduate degrees was a field other than business or education.
- S-Doc/Ed: Single doctoral (education)
  These institutions awarded research doctoral degrees in education but not in other fields, they may have more extensive offerings at the master's or professional level.
- S-Doc/Other: Single doctoral (other field)
  These institutions awarded research doctoral degrees in a single field other than education, they may have more extensive offerings at the master's or professional level.
- CompDoc/MedVet: Comprehensive doctoral with medical/veterinary
  These institutions awarded research doctoral degrees in the humanities, social sciences, and STEM fields, as well as in medicine, dentistry, and/or veterinary medicine. They also offer professional education in other health professions or in fields such as business, education, engineering, law, public policy, or social work.
- CompDoc/NMedVet: Comprehensive doctoral with no medical/veterinary
  These institutions awarded research doctoral degrees in the humanities, social sciences, and STEM fields. They also offer professional education in fields such

as business, education, engineering, law, public policy, social work, or health professions other than medicine, dentistry, or veterinary medicine.

- Doc/HSS: Doctoral, humanities/social sciences dominant
  These institutions awarded research doctoral degrees in a range of fields, and the largest number of research doctorates were in the humanities or social sciences. They may also offer professional education at the doctoral level or in fields such as law or medicine.
- Doc/STEM: Doctoral, STEM dominant
  These institutions awarded research doctoral degrees in a range of fields, and the largest number of research doctorates were in the STEM fields. They may also offer professional education at the doctoral level or in fields such as law or medicine.
- Doc/Prof: Doctoral, professions dominant
  These institutions awarded research doctoral degrees in a range of fields, and the largest number of research doctorates were in professions other than engineering (such as education, health professions, public policy, or social work). They may also offer professional education in law or medicine.

Of the 28 institutions that reported having Master's in Teacher Leadership Programs, the highest frequency represented, with a rate of 17.8%, was the classification postbaccalaureate with arts and sciences, education dominant. These institutions award master's degrees in both arts and sciences and professional fields, and the field with the largest number of graduate degrees is education. The second highest reported frequency represented was the classification of postbaccalaureate comprehensive, which includes institutions that award master's degrees in the humanities, social sciences, and STEM fields, as well as degrees in one or more professional fields. These institutions represented 14.2% of those with Master's in Teacher Leadership. There were four graduate instructional program classifications that reported a frequency representation rate of 10.7%. Those classifications are: postbaccalaureate with arts and sciences other dominant fields, postbaccalaureate professional education dominant, single doctoral education, and doctoral STEM dominant. The classifications of comprehensive doctoral with medical/veterinary and comprehensive doctoral with no medical/veterinary had

frequency rates of 7.1%. The classifications of postbaccalaureate with arts and sciences business dominant, single postbaccalaureate education, and postbaccalaureate professional other dominant fields represented frequency rates of 3.5%. The classifications of postbaccalaureate comprehensive arts and sciences dominant, postbaccalaureate professional business dominant, single doctoral in fields other than education, doctoral humanities/social sciences dominant, and doctoral professions dominant were all not represented in the study. The data for this information can be found in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 *Graduate Instructional Program Classification* (*n* = 28)

Classification	*n*	%
Postbac-A&S/Ed	5	17.8
Postbac-Comp	4	14.2
Postbac-A&S/Other	3	10.7
Postbac-Prof/Ed	3	10.7
S-Doc/Ed	3	10.7
Doc/STEM	3	10.7
CompDoc/MedVet	2	7.1
CompDoc/NMedVet	2	7.1
S-Postbac/Ed	1	3.5
Postbac-A&S/Bus	1	3.5
Postbac-Prof/Other	1	3.5
Postbac-A&S	0	0.0
Postbac-Prof/Bus	0	0.0
S-Doc/Other	0	0.0
Doc/HSS	0	0.0
Doc/Prof	0	0.0

Enrollment Profile Classification

The second Carnegie Foundation classification that was researched was the enrollment profile classification. The following guidelines were used to classify the institutions:

- VHU: Very high undergraduate
  Fall enrollment data show both undergraduate and graduate/professional students, with the latter group accounting for less than 10 percent of FTE enrollment.
- HU: High undergraduate
  Fall enrollment data show both undergraduate and graduate/professional students, with the latter group accounting for 10–24 percent of FTE enrollment.
- MU: Majority undergraduate
  Fall enrollment data show both undergraduate and graduate/professional students, with the latter group accounting for 25–49 percent of FTE enrollment.
- MGP: Majority graduate/professional
  Fall enrollment data show both undergraduate and graduate/professional students, with the latter group accounting for at least half of FTE enrollment.
- ExGP: Exclusively graduate/professional
  Fall enrollment data show only graduate/professional students enrolled.

The highest frequency reported of the 28 institutions researched was high undergraduate, with a frequency rate of 42.8%. The enrollment classification majority undergraduate represented a frequency rate of 28.5%. Next, with a frequency rate of 25% was the classification very high undergraduate. The classification majority graduate/professional represented a frequency rate of 3.5%. No universities with the enrollment profile classification of exclusively graduate/professional were included in the final sample. The data for this section can be seen in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 *Enrollment Profile Classification* (*n* = 28)

Classification	*n*	%
HU	12	42.8
MU	8	28.5
VHU	7	25.0
MGP	1	3.5
ExGP	0	0.0

Size and Setting Classification

The next Carnegie Foundation classification that was described was the size and setting classification of the institution. The following guidelines were used to classify the institutions:

- VS4/NR: Very small four-year, primarily nonresidential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of fewer than 1,000 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. Fewer than 25 percent of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus and/or fewer than 50 percent attend full time (includes exclusively distance education institutions).
- VS4/R: Very small four-year, primarily residential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of fewer than 1,000 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. 25-49 percent of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and at least 50 percent attend full time.
- VS4/HR: Very small four-year, highly residential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of fewer than 1,000 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. At least half of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and at least 80 percent attend full time.
- S4/NR: Small four-year, primarily nonresidential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of 1,000–2,999 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. Fewer than 25 percent of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and/or fewer than 50 percent attend full time (includes exclusively distance education institutions).
- S4/R: Small four-year, primarily residential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of 1,000–2,999 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. 25-49 percent of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and at least 50 percent attend full time.
- S4/HR: Small four-year, highly residential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of 1,000–2,999 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. At least half of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and at least 80 percent attend full time.
- M4/NR: Medium four-year, primarily nonresidential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of 3,000–9,999 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. Fewer than 25 percent of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and/or fewer than 50 percent attend full time (includes exclusively distance education institutions).
- M4/R: Medium four-year, primarily residential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of 3,000–9,999 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. 25-49 percent of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and at least 50 percent attend full time.
- M4/HR: Medium four-year, highly residential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of 3,000–9,999 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. At least half of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and at least 80 percent attend full time.
- L4/NR: Large four-year, primarily nonresidential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of at least 10,000 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. Fewer than 25 percent of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and/or fewer than 50 percent attend full time (includes exclusively distance education institutions).
- L4/R: Large four-year, primarily residential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of at least 10,000 degree-seeking

students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. 25-49 percent of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and at least 50 percent attend full time.

- L4/HR: Large four-year, highly residential
  Fall enrollment data show FTE enrollment of at least 10,000 degree-seeking students at these bachelor's degree granting institutions. At least half of degree-seeking undergraduates live on campus, and at least 80 percent attend full time.

The highest frequency reported with a rate of 28.5% was medium four-year, primarily residential. Large four-year, primarily nonresidential and medium four-year, highly residential comprised 14.2% of the final sample. Three classifications represented 10.7% of the institutions in the study; those classifications were small four-year highly residential, medium four-year primarily nonresidential and large four-year primarily residential. The classification of small four-year primarily nonresidential represented a frequency rate of 7.1%. Lastly, small four-year primarily residential institutions were 3.5% of the sample. The classifications of very small four-year primarily nonresidential, very small four-year primarily residential, very small four-year highly residential, and small four-year primarily nonresidential were not represented by universities in the final sample. This information can be found in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 *Size and Setting Classification* (*n* = 28)

Classification	*n*	%
M4/R	8	28.5
M4/HR	4	14.2
L4/NR	4	14.2
S4/HR	3	10.7
M4/NR	3	10.7
L4/R	3	10.7
S4/NR	2	7.1
S4/R	1	3.5
VS4/NR	0	0.0
VS4/R	0	0.0
VS4/HR	0	0.0
L4/HR	0	0.0

Basic Classification

The last Carnegie Foundation classification that was researched was the basic classification. The following guidelines were used to classify the institutions:

> I. Doctorate-granting Universities. Includes institutions that awarded at least 20 research doctoral degrees during the update year (excluding doctoral-level degrees that qualify recipients for entry into professional practice, such as the JD, MD, PharmD, DPT, etc.). Excludes Special Focus Institutions and Tribal Colleges.
>
> - RU/VH: Research Universities (very high research activity)
> - RU/H: Research Universities (high research activity)
> - DRU: Doctoral/Research Universities
>
> II. Master's Colleges and Universities. Generally includes institutions that awarded at least 50 master's degrees and fewer than 20 doctoral degrees during the update year (with occasional exceptions – see Carnegie's Methodology). Excludes Special Focus Institutions and Tribal Colleges.
>
> - Master's/L: Master's Colleges and Universities (larger programs)
> - Master's/M: Master's Colleges and Universities (medium programs)
> - Master's/S: Master's Colleges and Universities (smaller programs)
>
> III. Baccalaureate Colleges. Includes institutions where baccalaureate degrees represent at least 10 percent of all undergraduate degrees and where fewer than 50 master's degrees or 20 doctoral degrees were awarded during the update year. (Some institutions above the master's degree threshold are also included; see Carnegie's Methodology.) Excludes Special Focus Institutions and Tribal Colleges.
>
> - Bac/A&S: Baccalaureate Colleges—Arts & Sciences
> - Bac/Diverse: Baccalaureate Colleges—Diverse Fields
> - Bac/Assoc: Baccalaureate/Associate's Colleges
>
> IV. Focus Institutions. Institutions awarding baccalaureate or higher-level degrees where a high concentration of degrees (above 75%) is in a single field or set of related fields. Excludes Tribal Colleges.
>
> - Spec/Faith: Theological seminaries, Bible colleges, and other faith-related institutions
> - Spec/Medical: Medical schools and medical centers
> - Spec/Health: Other health profession schools
> - Spec/Eng: Schools of engineering

- Spec/Tech: Other technology-related schools
- Spec/Bus: Schools of business and management
- Spec/Arts: Schools of art, music, and design
- Spec/Law: Schools of law
- Spec/Other: Other special-focus institutions

V. Tribal Colleges. Colleges and universities that are members of the American Indian Higher Education Consortium, as identified in Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) Institutional Characteristics.

The highest frequency reported, with a rate of 60.7% were categorized as Master's/L: master's colleges and universities, larger programs. RU/H: research universities, high research activity represented 14.2% of institutions with Master's in Teacher Leadership programs. A frequency rate of 7.1% represented the classifications of RU/VH: research universities, very high research activity; DRU: doctoral/research universities; and Master's/M: master's colleges and universities medium programs. Lastly, with a frequency rate of 3.5% was the classification of Master's/S: master's colleges and universities smaller programs. The classifications under basic classification that were not represented by universities in the study were: baccalaureate colleges arts and sciences, baccalaureate colleges diverse fields, baccalaureate associate's colleges, theological seminaries, Bible colleges, other faith-related institutions, medical schools and medical centers, other health profession schools, schools of engineering, other technology-related schools, schools of business and management, schools of art, music, and design, schools of law, other special-focus institutions, and tribal colleges. Table 4.4 represents this data.

Table 4.4 *Basic Classification* (*n* = 28)

Classification	*n*	%
Master's/L	17	60.7
RU/H	4	14.2
RU/VH	2	7.1
DRU	2	7.1
Master's/M	2	7.1
Master's/S	1	3.5
Bac/A&S	0	0.0
Bac/Diverse	0	0.0
Bac/Assoc	0	0.0
Spec/Faith	0	0.0
Spec/Medical	0	0.0
Spec/Health	0	0.0
Spec/Eng	0	0.0
Spec/Tech	0	0.0
Spec/Bus	0	0.0
Spec/Arts	0	0.0
Spec/Law	0	0.0
Spec/Other	0	0.0
Tribal Colleges	0	0.0

Census Bureau Classifications

The first census bureau classification that was researched was the regions classification. Two regions each housed 42.8% of the universities in the final sample, the Midwest and the South. The Midwest consists of the following states: Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, Wisconsin, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota. Of the Midwestern institutions in the study, four were located in Illinois, one in Michigan, two in Missouri, and three in Ohio. The South consists of the following states: Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, West Virginia, Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, Tennessee, Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas. Of the 28 institutions that are located in the South, one institution is in Arkansas, one in Florida, one in Georgia, three in Kentucky, one in Oklahoma, one in South Carolina, three in Tennessee, and one in Virginia. The

Northeast included 7.1% of the institutions in the study. The states of Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania make-up the Northeast region. Of the colleges and universities in the study, one was located in Connecticut and one in Pennsylvania. The last region, the West, also included 7.1% of the final sample. The states that form the West region are: Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, New Mexico, Montana, Utah, Nevada, Wyoming, Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon, and Washington. There was one institution in the study located in California and one in Idaho.

In order to break down the states further, the 2010 census bureau divisions were also described. The classification including the most representation with a frequency rate of 32.1% was the East North Central. The states that make-up this region are: Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin. The East South Central division consists of Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee. This division housed 21.4% of the final sample. The division, South Atlantic, encompassed 14.2% of institutions with Master's in Teacher Leadership programs. The states of Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, West Virginia, as well as the District of Columbia form the South Atlantic division. The West North Central division, which includes Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota are the locale of 10.7% of the sample institutions. The West South Central Division encompassed 7.1% of the sample. The West South Central division consists of Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas. There were also four divisions that each comprised 3.5% of the sample: New England, Middle Atlantic, Mountain, and Pacific. The states in the New England division consist of Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New

Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont. The Middle Atlantic division includes New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania. The Mountain division encompasses Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, New Mexico, Montana, Utah, Nevada, and Wyoming. The sates of Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon, and Washington make-up the Pacific division. Table 4.5 shows this data.

Table 4.5 *2010 Census Bureau Classifications* (n = 28)

Classification	*n*	%
Regions		
Midwest	12	42.8
South	12	42.8
Northeast	2	7.1
West	2	7.1
Divisions		
East North Central	9	32.1
East South Central	6	21.4
South Atlantic	4	14.2
West North Central	3	10.7
West South Central	2	7.1
New England	1	3.5
Middle Atlantic	1	3.5
Mountain	1	3.5
Pacific	1	3.5

Research Question Two

What courses and general program descriptors comprise Master's in Teacher Leadership programs?

In order to answer research question two, the website of each sample institution was searched to find their general program descriptors. If the general program descriptors were not clearly defined on the website, the contact person for the program was either called or emailed for clarification. The first aspect of each program in the sample that was researched was the type of degree that would be earned upon completion of the program requirements. This information was placed into a spreadsheet where

frequencies were calculated. As a part of this question, the total number of hours required for degree completion was also researched, where those hours were broken down into total hours required, number of core hours required, and the number of elective hours required for degree completion. All of this information was put into a spreadsheet where frequencies were calculated. Next, the general program descriptors were also analyzed. For this portion of research question two, the researcher sought to find whether the students of each program had to be of full-time status, part-time status, or could choose their status. The researcher also looked at whether the courses were offered face-to-face, online, or a combination of both. Lastly, it was determined whether there was a culminating project at the end of the program and if so, what was the nature of the project. The information collected for this portion of research question two was put into a spreadsheet where frequencies were calculated. For the last component of research question two, what courses comprise Master's in Teacher Leadership programs, the core required courses of each sample program were obtained from the website of each institution. The courses were then placed into course categories as deemed by the researcher, and this information was put into a spreadsheet in which frequencies of types of courses were calculated.

Degree Earned

The degree earned at the completion of each of the 28 teacher leadership programs was described first. All of the programs in the study were those of Master's degrees but were coded as various types of Master's degrees at different institutions. The highest frequency reported was the degree of a Master's in Education (MED/ME), with a rate of 42.8%. The second most frequent degree was a Master's of Arts in Education

(MAED), with a frequency rate of 25%. A Master's of Arts (MA), yielded a frequency rate of 14.2%, while a Master's of Science (MS), followed with a rate of 10.7%. Lastly, Master's of Science in Education (MSED/MSE) showed a frequency rate of 7.1%. This data is represented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 *Degree Earned* (n = 28)

Degree	n	%
MED/ME	12	42.8
MAED	7	25.0
MA	4	14.2
MS	3	10.7
MSED/MSE	2	7.1

Required Credit Hours

The first of the components of the teacher leader programs that was studied was the total number of hours required for program completion. An abundance of different total hour requirements were found. The largest representation, with a frequency rate of 28.5%, was a total number of 30 hours. A total of 36 hours was the second most common with a rate of 17.8%. There were two total hour requirements that yielded rates of 14.2%, 32 hours and 33 hours. Finally, there were seven different total hour requirements indicating a rate of 3.5%. Those hours were 31, 34, 35, 38, 39, 48, and a range of 30-36.

To further explore credit hour requirements, the researcher identified the total required hours that were core hours required by all teacher leader students enrolled in that program. With a rate of 14.2%, 15, 27, and 32 core hours had the largest representation. Next, 24 core hours yielded a rate of 10.7%. Third, 12, 18, 21, 30, and 36 core hours all resulted in rates of 7.1%. Lastly, there were three different core requirements with a frequency of 3.5%: 34, 35, and 48 total core hours.

The researcher also calculated the number of elective hours the students enrolled in teacher leadership programs were able to choose as part of their total required hours for program completion. The largest representation with a frequency rate of 35.7% was 0 elective courses allowed. An allowance of 12 elective hours resulted in a rate of 17.8% of programs in the sample. The total number of elective hours of 9 represented 14.2% of programs. With a rate of 7.1%, programs with the elective hours of 15 and 18 followed. Finally, with a rate of 3.5%, programs with the elective hours of 3, 6, 11, 21, and the range of 15-21 fell. Table 4.7 shows the data for this information.

Table 4.7 *Required Hours* (*n* = 28)

Hours	*n*	%
Total hours		
30	8	28.5
31	1	3.5
32	4	14.2
33	4	14.2
34	1	3.5
35	1	3.5
36	5	17.8
38	1	3.5
39	1	3.5
48	1	3.5
30-36	1	3.5
Core hours		
12	2	7.1
15	4	14.2
18	2	7.1
21	2	7.1
24	3	10.7
27	4	14.2
30	2	7.1
32	4	14.2
34	1	3.5
35	1	3.5
36	2	7.1
48	1	3.5

Table 4.7 (continued)

Hours	*n*	%
Elective hours		
0	10	35.7
3	1	3.5
6	1	3.5
9	4	14.2
11	1	3.5
12	5	17.8
15	2	7.1
18	2	7.1
21	1	3.5
15-21	1	3.5

Status, Course Delivery Method, and Culminating Project

Another focus of question two was to find out whether sample schools mandated their teacher leadership students to be of full-time status, part-time status, or allowed their students to choose their status. Of the 28 institutions researched, it was found that in 53.5% of the schools the students were given the choice of whether they preferred to be full or part-time students. On the contrary, 39.2% of these institutions mandated that their students be part-time status while 7.1% of the colleges and universities in the sample required that their students be full-time.

The next variable assessed was whether the institutions in the study offered their teacher leadership courses solely as a face-to-face method, online only, or a combination of some face-to-face and online time. It was revealed that 39.2% of the schools researched delivered their courses solely face-to-face. The combination of some face-to-face and online delivery also yielded a rate of 39.2%. Lastly, the online only delivery method of teacher leadership courses was least common with a rate of 21.4%.

Finally, the researcher collected data on the type of culminating project, if any, that the institution required their teacher leadership students to complete at the end of the

program. With a rate of 46.4%, the requirement of an action research project was the most common. There were two categories with a frequency rate of 10.7%: portfolio only and the requirement of a portfolio as well as an action research project. There were nine categories of culminating projects that revealed a frequency rate of 3.5%. These included: an approved project, a thesis, an internship, a culminating paper, an action research project and a grant proposal, a choice of an action research project or a thesis, a thesis and an approved project, and a combination of a portfolio, an action research project, and a comprehensive exam. The data for this section can be seen in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 *Status, Course Delivery Method, & Culminating Project* (n = 28)

Program Descriptor	n	%
Status		
Full-Time	2	7.1
Part-Time	11	39.2
Student Choice	15	53.5
Course Delivery Method		
Face-to-Face	11	39.2
Online	6	21.4
Combination	11	39.2
Culminating Project		
Action Research Project	13	46.4
Portfolio	3	10.7
Action Research & Portfolio	3	10.7
Action Research & Grant Proposal	1	3.5
Action Research or Thesis	1	3.5
Culminating Paper	1	3.5
Exit Exam	1	3.5
Internship	1	3.5
Portfolio, Action Research, & Comp Exam	1	3.5
Practicum	1	3.5
Thesis	1	3.5
Thesis and Approved Project	1	3.5

Teacher Leadership Courses

The final focus of research question two was on the types of courses that comprise Master's in Teacher Leadership Programs. Specifically, this focus included a description

of the titles of the entire core requirement courses for the 28 institutions included in the study and the creation of major course categories in which these courses clustered. Research based courses represented the highest frequency at 17.8%, but the researcher decided to break this category down into two subcategories - Action Research/Projects and Research Methods. Action Research/Projects accounted for a rate of 10.3% and included courses like Action Research Methods, Research Projects, and Applied Educational Research. Research Methods, including courses such as Introduction to Research and Quantitative and Qualitative Research Methods, resulted in a rate of 7.5% of all courses included in the 255 identified core teacher leadership courses.

Courses focused on curriculum and instruction were the next most frequent rate at 16.9%. Some of these courses included Curriculum Theory, Instructional Design and Practices, Curriculum Development, Facilitation Skills, and Leader-Centered Instruction. Some of the courses included under the category of Assessment, Measurement, and Data were Data-Driven Decision Making, Student Assessment, Tests and Measurements, and Using Data to Inform Practice. This category included 7.1% of all of the classes. The category of Professional Growth and Leadership Development resulted in a rate of 5.9%. Leadership Development, Assuming Leadership Roles, Leadership in Professional Development, Leadership Theories and Practices, and Professional Development of Teacher Leaders represent some of the courses within this category. The next category, Leadership for Learning, Change, and Improvement yielded a rate of 5.1%. Courses such as learning Focused Leadership, Organizational Change, Leading Change, Improving Student Achievement and Leadership and Learning make-up this category. The category of Collaboration and Supervision included courses such as Coaching and Mentoring, the

Development of Professional Learning Communities, Supervision of Instruction, Collaboration Skills, and Concepts of Learning Communities. These comprised 4.8% of all courses.

There were three course categories with a rate of 4.4%: How Students Learn/Differentiation, Leadership Skills, and Teacher Leadership Practices/Seminar. Courses such as How We Learn, Learning Differences, The Thinking and Learning Brain, and The Learning Process were some of the courses placed into the How Students Learn/Differentiation category. Within the Leadership Skills category, courses included Organization, Character Development, Resource Acquisition, Planning and Action Skills, and Developing a Vision. Teacher Leadership/Seminar included Seminar in Teacher Leadership, Foundations of Teacher Leadership, The Role of the Teacher Leader, and Team Seminar.

There were also three course categories that resulted in a rate of 3.9%: Diversity, Practicum/Field Study/Capstone, and School Law. Some of the types of courses that make-up the Diversity category include Leadership in Diverse Communities, Multicultural Education, and Diversity in the Classroom and School Community. Within the Practicum/Field Study/Capstone category, courses included Field Experience, Practicum in Teacher Leadership, Capstone Experience, and Teacher Leadership in Action. The only course within the School Law category was entitled School Law.

The course category of Evaluation and Analysis included courses such as Analysis of Teaching, Evaluation Skills, Instructional Management and Evaluation, Self-Evaluation and Knowing Yourself as an Educational Leader. This category included 2.8% of all courses.

There were five course categories that yielded a rate of 2.0%: Community Relations, Literacy Instruction, Philosophy/History of Education, Special Issues in Education, and Technology. Within the category of Community Relations, there were courses such as Schools, Parents, and Community Relations; Leading Schools and Communities; and Communication and Community Relations. The Literacy Instruction category included Administration of Literacy Programs, Researched Based Literacy Parties, Literacy in the Content Areas, and Teaching Reading in Schools. Within the Philosophy/History category, there were courses such as Philosophy of Education, the History of Education, and Philosophical and Sociological Connections for Educational Leaders. Some of the courses which comprise the Special Issues in Education category are Special Topics in Education and Issues in Teaching. The category of Technology encompasses courses like Introduction to Online Teaching and Learning, Technology in Education, Technology Applications for Administrators, and Instructional Technologies.

With a rate of 1.6%, he course categories of Ethics in Leadership and Education and School Culture were the next most frequent. A sample of the courses within the Ethics in Leadership and Education category includes Ethics of Leadership, Ethics and Politics in Education, and Ethical Leadership. Courses such as Influencing School Culture, Education and Culture, Teacher Leadership to Transform School Culture, and School Culture and Climate are among those which make-up the School Culture course category.

The category of Classroom Management received a rate of 1.2% and included such courses as Classroom and Behavior Management in Mainstream Classrooms and Behavior and Classroom Management. The category of Educational Advocacy had a rate

of 0.8% and included courses such as Educational Advocacy and Leadership and the course of Public Relations, Networking, and Development. Lastly, the course category of Grant Writing had a frequency rate of 0.4% with only one course under this category entitled Grant Writing. This data can be found in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 *Teacher Leadership Courses (n* = 255)

Course Categories	*n*	%
Curriculum/Instruction	43	16.8
Action Research/Projects	26	10.3
Research Methods	19	7.5
Assessment/Measurement/Data	18	7.1
Professional Growth/Leadership Development	15	5.9
Leadership for Learning, Change, & Improvement	13	5.1
Collaboration/Supervision	12	4.8
How Students Learn/Differentiation	11	4.4
Leadership Skills	11	4.4
Teacher Leadership Practices/Seminar	11	4.4
Diversity	10	3.9
Practicum/Field Experience/Capstone	10	3.9
School Law	10	3.9
Evaluation/Analysis	7	2.8
Community Relations	5	2.0
Literacy Instruction	5	2.0
Philosophy/History of Education	5	2.0
Special Issues in Education	5	2.0
Technology	5	2.0
Ethics in Leadership & Education	4	1.6
School Culture	4	1.6
Classroom Management	3	1.2
Educational Advocacy	2	0.8
Grant Writing	1	0.4

Research Question Three

Are the embedded goals of Teacher Leader programs aligned with teacher leadership standards?

To answer research question three, the three institutions that provided access to course syllabi online were utilized. A document analysis was conducted on the core course syllabi looking for the embedded goals of the courses and program. The findings

were then compared to the Teacher Leader Model Standards/ Domains as developed by the Teacher Leadership Exploratory Consortium, as those are the standards which the Consortium believes all teacher leaders should possess. The results are presented in Table 4.10. The Teacher Leader Model Standards (Consortium, 2008) are as follows:

- Domain I: Fostering a Collaborative Culture to Support Educator Development and Student Learning: The teacher leader is well versed in adult learning theory and uses that knowledge to create a community of collective responsibility within his or her school. In promoting this collaborative culture among fellow teachers, administrators, and other school leaders, the teacher leader ensures improvement in educator instruction and, consequently, student learning.
- Domain II: Accessing and Using Research to Improve Practice and Student Learning: The teacher leader keeps abreast of the latest research about teaching effectiveness and student learning, and implements best practices where appropriate. He or she models the use of systematic inquiry as a critical component of teachers' ongoing learning and development.
- Domain III: Promoting Professional Learning for Continuous Improvement: The teacher leader understands that the processes of teaching and learning are constantly evolving. The teacher leader designs and facilitates job-embedded professional development opportunities that are aligned with school improvement goals.
- Domain IV: Facilitating Improvements in Instruction and Student Learning: The teacher leader possesses a deep understanding of teaching and learning, and models an attitude of continuous learning and reflective practice for colleagues.

The teacher leader works collaboratively with fellow teachers to constantly improve instructional practices.

- Domain V: Promoting the Use of Assessments and Data for School and District Improvement: The teacher leader is knowledgeable about the design of assessments, both formative and summative. The teacher leader works with colleagues to analyze data and interpret results to inform goals and to improve student learning.
- Domain VI: Improving Outreach and Collaboration with Families and Community: The teacher leader understands the impact that families, cultures, and communities have on student learning. As a result, the teacher leader seeks to promote a sense of partnership among these different groups toward the common goal of excellent education.
- Domain VII: Advocating for Student Learning and the Profession: The teacher leader understands the landscape of education policy and can identify key players at the local, state, and national levels. The teacher leader advocates for the teaching profession and for policies that benefit student learning.

Table 4.10 *Teacher Leader Exploratory Consortium Standards: Domains*

Core Courses		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
University 1								
Using Assessment to Improve Student Data		X	X		X	X		
Instruction Strategies For Diverse Learners		X	X	X	X			
Research Analysis In Special Ed		X						
Coaching and Mentoring	X		X					
Teacher Leadership In Practice		X	X		X		X	
University 2								
Curriculum Dev for Ed Leaders				X				
Instructional Supervision for Ed Leaders	X		X			X		
School Law								
Developing PLCs	X	X	X					
Admin and Supervision for Ed Leaders	X	X	X	X			X	
Grant Writings for Ed Leaders	X	X						
University 3								
Organizational Theories and Leadership Dev	X							
Educational Law								
Supervision of Instruction	X		X	X	X			
School and Communities						X	X	
Special Topics in Education		X		X	X			
Directed Reading, Research, and Individual Projects		X						

Note. An X in a column indicates that the course focuses on the standard in that column.

University One

University one has five core courses in its program of study. In course one, Using Assessment to Improve Student Data, there is evidence that this course meets the standards for Domains I, II, IV, and V. As evidence of Domain I: Fostering a Collaborative Culture to Support Educator Development and Student Learning, one of the course objectives for the students enrolled in this course is for them to establish professional learning communities/learning teams. Also, one of the assignments for the students is to complete a professional learning community project. Within this project, the students will be required participate as a member of a professional learning community where they are expected to be prepared to bring knowledge, opinions, and ideas to deepen the understanding of various topics. As evidence of Domain II: Accessing and Using Research to Improve Practice and Student Learning, the candidates are required to submit a professional reaction to research and assessment articles. The assignment requires the students to be critical readers of articles that relate to assessment and research, focusing on journal articles. This course also touches on the needs of Domain IV: Facilitating Improvements in Instruction and Student Learning, by focusing part of the course on planning and implementing appropriate instruction and interventions for diverse learners. Lastly, this course is mainly focused on Domain V: Promoting the Use of Assessments and Data for School and District Improvement. This course addresses knowledge and implementation of assessment concepts; methods of analyzing various types of student achievement data; and using assessment to improve teaching, learning, and student achievement (Brown, 2012b). Furthermore, the candidates in this class are expected to develop an understanding of the following concepts and be able to:

explain the purpose and design of assessment; define key assessment terms; analyze assessment systems in context; analyze classroom, school, and district data; analyze P-12 student achievement data; develop and administer standards-based assessments; and analyze and interpret student results (Brown, 2012b). Evidence of Domain V can also be seen through the required course readings: *Assessment Essentials for Standards-Based Education* by McMillan (2008) and *Data Wise: A Step-by-Step Guide to Using Assessment Results to Improve Teaching and Learning* by Boudett, City, and Murnane (2005). Additionally, Domain V is evidenced through the assignments of an assessment system analysis and interpreting assessment results. In the assessment of a system analysis assignment, the students will identify a school and select grade ranges to analyze internal assessments as well as external assessments, and then make recommendations for improving the overall assessment system. Within the interpreting assessment results assignment, the candidates will administer an assessment and collect student work samples to analyze and compare student performance data.

Instructional Strategies for Diverse Learners is course two under university one; this course touches on concepts from Domains II, III, IV, and V. In this course, the students will be required to provide professional reactions to three journal articles, which would fall under Domain II: . The purpose of this assignment is for the students to become critical readers of articles that relate to diversity in education. Domain III: Promoting Professional Learning for Continuous Improvement, can be seen within the assignment of having the candidates design a professional development session for their school or district. It would be possible for this assignment to also meet the standards of another domain depending on the type of session each student chooses to design. There

are several pieces of evidence of this course meeting the standards for Domain IV. The focus of the course is on instructional strategies that apply across content areas, where there will be an investigation of differentiated, culturally relevant instructional strategies and materials to improve and manage instruction. This course also requires candidates to design instruction, teach students in the classroom, and analyze student work to improve student learning and teaching practice (Bronger, 2012). The students will also be required to develop a differentiated instructional sequence of lessons for a classroom profile and actually deliver one of the lessons to a class. Evidence of Domain IV can also be found within the course's required reading of *Effective Teaching Strategies that Accommodate Diverse Learners* by Coyne, Kamé ennui, and Carnine (2011). Having the candidate analyzing student work provides evidence of Domain V.

Course three, Research Analysis in Special Education, includes various forms of evidence for meeting Domain II. The purpose of this course is to provide a broad range of research in special education relative to methodology and current research efforts in the field and provide an understanding of research designs as well as the reading and analysis of research studies (Simmons, 2012). Additional evidence of Domain II is shown through the required reading of *How to Design and Evaluate Research in Education* by Fraenkle and Wallen (2012). The candidates enrolled in the course will also be required to complete practice/research exercises and a paper. The students will read different research documents and complete practice exercises that coincide with the articles. The students will then write a paper that will summarize and formalize the information from the exercises using correct APA style. Another assignment within this course is an analysis of research articles. Students will be assigned different research

articles that employ various research methods to read, analyze and discuss whether certain research issues were appropriately approached within the article.

Teacher Leadership: Coaching and Mentoring is course four within university one. The Domains that this course addresses are I and III. This course focuses on the knowledge, skills, and dispositions for teachers to enhance effective practice with peers in schools and develop evidence-based strategies to support reflective, self-directed teachers who positively impact student achievement (McGatha, 2010). The course also is designed to enhance effective practice and collegial relationships in school settings and will examine: current models of mentoring and coaching; roles and responsibilities; adult learning theory; building relationships; cultural proficiency in coaching and mentoring; planning and reflecting conversations; role of mediation; developing and maintaining trust; mediating questioning skills; communication; observation; and listening skills (McGatha, 2010), all of which is evidence of Domain I. The required readings of *Mentoring New Teachers Through Collaborative Coaching* by Dunne and Villani; *Culturally Proficient Coaching: Supporting Educators to Create Equitable Schools* by Lindsey, Martinez, and Lindsey (2007); *Mentoring Matters: A Practical Guide to Learning-Focused Relationships* by Lipton and Wellman (2003); and *Kentucky's Guide to Reflective Classroom Practice* (2007) are also evidence of Domain I. The assignment of a coaching and mentoring program/model analysis in which the students will work in groups to analyze a coaching or mentoring program model and the assignment of a coaching and mentoring case study where the students will document their growth in coaching or mentoring over the course of four weeks and present it as a written case study are further evidence of Domain I. This course also addresses the standards of

Domain III through the assignment of having the candidates in the course plan for job-embedded professional development. For this assignment, the students, acting in the role of a coach or mentor, will create a plan for facilitating job-embedded professional development for a teacher described in a case study. It is unclear if this course could also fall under other domains because the topic of the professional development session is unknown.

Course five within university one is Teacher Leadership in Practice. This course addresses Domains II, III, V, and VII. Within Domain II, the main focus of this course is action research. The required reading for this course, which is evidence of Domain II, is *The Reflective Educators' Guide to Classroom Research: Learning to Teach and Teaching to Learn Through Practitioner Inquiry* by Dana and Yendol-Hoppey (2009). The students will also be required to produce an action research study by identifying a question related to their practice, discussing and analyzing current literature, presenting a sound and appropriate selection of methodology, presenting and analyzing data collected, interpreting and discussing findings and what they mean for future practice, and addressing key issues such as validity, ethics, and researcher role. The students will report their findings through a written action research paper and an oral presentation/defense. It is not known if this assignment can fulfill other domains because the topic of research each student will choose is unknown. Domain III can be found in this course by requiring the students to complete a professional development experience. The students will design a comprehensive, high-quality professional development experience for their school or district that best meets the needs and content identified in the Comprehensive School Improvement Plan (CSIP). The topic of professional

development chosen by each student is unknown so it is unclear if this assignment could meet other domains. Evidence of meeting Domain V is shown through the assignment requirement of a change leadership paper on a school's CSIP. The students will review the CSIP where they will analyze the school's data and give a presentation to the class. Lastly, this course addresses Domain VII: Advocating for Student Learning and the Profession, by having the candidates clearly articulate a personal definition of teacher leadership and a change process to support teacher leadership in their state, district, schools, and classrooms (Brown, 2012a).

University Two

University two requires six core courses in their program of study. In course one, Curriculum Development for Educational Leaders, all of the course objectives, readings, and activities fall under the Teacher Leader Standard: Domain IV: Facilitating Improvements in Instruction and Student Learning. Within this course, the candidates will be required to read *Curriculum Leadership: Strategies for Development and Implementation* by Glatthorn, Boschee, and Whitehead (2009). The students in this course will be able to demonstrate an understanding of the influences on curriculum development

stemming from the functions of a school within a social and cultural context; demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the nature of learning and curriculum development; identify various models for curriculum development and the rationale for each model; identify the elements of curriculum development focusing on the needs, objectives, and content; demonstrate an understanding of the procedures and functions of goal analysis and development of objectives in curriculum planning; and demonstrate an

understanding of the procedures involved in evaluating curriculum and program development (Agunloye, 2012). The students will be required to conduct a curriculum and instruction assessment on a chosen colleague's curriculum, analyze the alignment of the written curriculum, taught curriculum, learned curriculum, and tested curriculum. All of these activities are evidence of Domain IV.

Course two under university two is Instructional Supervision for Educational Leaders. Within this course, the candidates will employ adult learning theory, encourage human relations, provide staff development, apply administrative functions, and organize for change in a collaborative model. They will also demonstrate knowledge of how to implement effective verbal and nonverbal information and technology to foster active inquiry, collaboration, and supportive interaction in educational settings (Carraway, 2012). The candidate will also be required to design and execute a supervisory plan that includes a minimum of three observations and conferences with a new or beginning teacher using a clinical supervision model. These goals and activities show evidence of this course meeting the standards for Domain I, which focuses on fostering a collaborative culture to support educator development and student learning. This course also shows evidence of meeting Domain III: Promoting Professional Learning for Continuous Improvement, by having the students analyze teachers' needs for job-embedded professional development and growth and by having each student design a professional development plan for their individual school based on its current needs. Lastly, this course shows evidence of meeting Domain VI, which focuses on improving outreach and collaboration with families and community, with the objective of the

students fostering relationships with school colleagues, parents, and agencies in the larger community to support the learning and well-being of all students.

Course three, School Law, examines the legal and fiduciary roles and responsibilities of the school administrator in a performance-based school leadership context (Rhodes, 2012). Candidates will examine and demonstrate an understanding of significant aspects of federal, state, and local laws, necessary to create a supportive learning environment focused on success for all learners (Rhodes, 2012). The students in this course will be required to examine the Code of Ethics for Educators and create a model that depicts how their school is positioned within the interwoven framework of federal, state, and local legal systems. They will be required to conduct field observations focusing on ethical, policy, and/or legal issues relating to teaching and learning. In addition, the candidates will be required to read *American Public School Law* by Alexander and Alexander (2011). None of the objectives, activities, or readings from this course meets any of the teacher leader standard domains.

Developing Professional Learning Communities is course four at university two. The Teacher Leader candidates will be able to identify the dimensions of the most effective professional learning community school models, select indicators and rubrics to assess readiness for implementation of high quality school-based professional learning community models that provide on-going support for adult and student learning, and use appropriate tools and protocols to plan and sustain the design of the school's learning community model (Harris, 2012a). The students will be required to read *Professional Learning Communities* by Hord and Sommers (2008), write a position paper on how a professional learning community works best, and review research findings in at least five recent articles published within the last five years on the essential needs of adult learners.

All of the above objectives, readings, and activities are evidence of meeting teacher leader standard Domain I: Fostering a Collaborative Culture to Support Educator Development and Student Learning. Having the students review research findings from articles is evidence of Domain II, which focuses on accessing and using research to improve practice and student learning. This course also meets the standards of Domain III: Promoting Professional Learning for Continuous Improvement, with the course objective of examining and determining appropriate professional learning strategies for meeting the developmental learning needs of teachers in order to support a system of continuous teacher learning in the professional learning culture of their schools (Harris, 2012a). Domain III can also be seen through the assignment of having each student create a comprehensive professional development plan that will serve as a guide for designing, implementing, and evaluating a professional learning community at their school.

Course five, Administration and Supervision of Literacy Programs, meets the standards for Domains I, II, III, IV and VII. Domain I is centered on fostering a collaborative culture to support educator development and student learning and is covered through the course objectives of discussing the model of classroom coaching and developing effective collaboration and consultation skills in order for the school leader to work successfully with educators in supervising the planning, implementing, and evaluating of literacy programs (Harris, 2012b). Evidence of Domain II: Accessing and Using Research to Improve Practice and Student Learning, is shown through the assignment of having the candidates research different literacy programs and the strategies used to make them successful; as well as having the students keep literature

journals, that consist of their thoughts and reactions to current articles on literacy. Evidence for Domain III is concentrated on promoting professional learning for continuous improvement and can be found in the course requirements of having the students attend and/or conduct professional development training sessions in literacy. Facilitating improvements in instruction and student learning is the focus of Domain IV and is covered by having the students critique instructional goals in literacy programs; develop and adapt adopted reading curricula and instructional techniques to fit the needs and learning/reading styles of students and teaching styles of teachers and coaches; organize, revise, and monitor programs for literacy instruction; and log seven hours a week at a Literacy Center where the students will supervise and tutor. Evidence of Domain VII: Advocating for Student Learning and the Profession, is found by having the candidates create a public relations program for literacy.

Course six is Grant Writing for Educational Leaders. The course is designed to allow students the opportunity to learn methods/processes of grant writing, including: project development, funding source development, and proposal writing (Harris, 2012c). This course meets the standards for Domain I which fosters a collaborative culture to support educator development and student learning because the students are required to collaborate with the administration, teachers and staff at their respective schools in order to find a need in which their grant proposal should focus. This course also meets the standards to Domain II: Accessing and Using Research to Improve Practice and Student Learning, because the students are required to conduct extensive research on their topic, determining the specific proposal topic and identifying several granting organizations that match the need and rationale of their proposal.

University Three

University Three has a core requirement of six courses. Within the first course, Leadership: Organizational Theory and Leadership Development, the students will study basic organizational theories and models of leadership and management. In addition, this course emphasizes a renewed sense of self, systems thinking, and personal and organizational change. The students will also have to bridge theories to practical applications in educational settings and develop a personal philosophy of education (Upperman, 2007). The course utilizes *Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice and Leadership* by Bolman and Deal (2003), which focuses on the structural, human resources, political and symbolic frames of organizations. None of these objectives and course readings clearly aligns with any of the teacher leader model standards. Another one of the main focuses of this course is shared leadership in professional environments. Additionally, there is an emphasis on communication skills, both of which would fall under Domain I of the teacher leader standards. Domain I centers on fostering a collaborative culture to support educator development and student learning.

Within Leadership: Educational Law, course two, the students will be provided with legal foundations of the U.S. public schools. They will also examine general principles of statutory and case law, and apply judicial decisions to educational environments (Bon, 2012). Additionally, this course focuses on legal responsibilities, constraints, and opportunities of public school officials, including a special education law component. Furthermore, this course emphasizes reflection on the intersection of law and ethics and the ethical implications of applying education law to everyday situations in schools and districts, as well as learning how to use the Internet to obtain legal

information (Bon, 2012). The students enrolled in this course will be required to develop a code of ethics, conduct a case study analysis, a legal issue analysis, and a special education case study. Unfortunately, this course does not align with any of the teacher leader standard domains.

The next course, Leadership: Supervision of Instruction, course three, meets the standards of Domains I, III, IV, and V. In meeting Domain I: Fostering a Collaborative Culture to Support Educator Development and Student Learning, this course prepares the students to be able to engage with classroom teachers and understand adult learning theory, which will better prepare them to foster a collaborative culture. This course additionally focuses on the characteristics of effective professional development and requires the students to create a professional development proposal for their school, which they present to their individual principals. Both activities are evidence of meeting Domain III: Promoting Professional Learning for Continuous Improvement. In order to meet the standards of Doman IV, which centers on facilitating improvements in instruction and student learning, this course provides theoretical overviews of supervision and evaluation of instruction and best practices in supervision. Furthermore, the students use interactive exercises to develop skills in the clinical process and developmental approach to supervision. The students will leave the course with an understanding of the five phases of clinical supervision and how they relate to the supervisory styles and approaches. In addition, this course uses practical, interactive exercises to develop skills in clinical process and developmental approaches to supervision (Upperman, 2011). This course uses the book, *Supervision and Instructional Leadership: A Developmental Approach* by Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2010), which addresses Domain IV.

Lastly, this course aligns with the standards of Domain V: Promoting the Use of Assessments and Data for School and District Improvement by requiring the students practice data informed decision making as a means to improve teaching and overall student learning.

Within course four, Leadership: Schools and Communities, students examine critical functions of leadership and management, complex decision-making of school executives, and constructive relationships between schools and communities (Pfoutz, 2010). The candidates in the course will be expected to demonstrate the ability to involve community members in the realization of the school vision and related school improvement efforts. Further, they are expected to develop the ability to bring together the resources of family members and the community to positively affect student learning. The students in the class will be required to conduct an interview with community leaders to assess the implementation of the school vision, as well as prepare a presentation to the community about how well the school vision is being implemented. These types of goals and activities are evidence of Domain VI, which focuses on improving outreach and collaboration with families and community. As evidence of Domain VII: advocating for student learning and the profession, this course will have the candidates gain insight into power structures and pressure groups in the school community to create coalitions and increase support for school programs and goals. The required reading of *Why School Communication Matter: Strategies from PR Professionals* by Poterfield and Carnes (2008) is additional evidence of Domain VII.

Next is course five, Leadership: Special Topics in Education: Trends and Issues in Instruction. One learner outcome of this course is that students will be able to apply

current research on effective developmentally appropriate practices to teaching young children from diverse backgrounds and varying abilities (Aier, 2011). Consequently, this course aligns with Domain II, which centers on accessing and using research to improve practice and student learning. This course will also covers Domain IV since goals for the course are to increase the knowledge and skills of leaders to develop curriculum, plan meaningful curriculum activities, develop individual and group activity plans, analyze and design appropriate environments and materials, analyze one's own teaching practices and set appropriate goals for teaching change (Aier, 2011). Moreover, an emphasis is placed on the current issues, trends, and impact of policy on curriculum and instruction. To this end, candidates are required to write a series of three lesson plans, all of which are evidence of Domain IV. This course also addresses Domain V: Promoting the Use of Assessments and Data for School and District Improvement because the students will be required to describe how ongoing data collection and management of classroom plans can be used to monitor child progress in the context of daily activities.

Course six, Leadership: Directed Reading, Research, and Individual Projects, is the last required course under University Three. The students will be presented with basic research principles, explore quantitative and qualitative paradigms in action research and other research formats, and develop basic skills in the action research methodology including: problem identification, development of a strategic action plan, implementation, evaluation of the strategic plan, and reflection on the results of the evaluation and research process (Latt, 2005). The students will also be required to conduct research literature critiques, participate in research simulations and exercises, and conduct and present individual research projects. The required reading for this

course is *Teacher-Researchers at Work* by MacLean and Mohr (1999). All of the above is evidence that this course addresses Domain II: Accessing and Using Research to Improve Practice and Student Learning. It is not known if this course could meet any of the other teacher leader domains because the topics of research chosen by the students are unknown.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Background of the Study

For the purpose of reorienting the reader, this chapter begins with an overview of the purposes of this study and research questions. A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform (1983), a report of President Ronald Reagan's National Commission on Excellence in Education, is considered a landmark event in modern American educational history. Among other things, the report contributed to the ever-growing sense that American schools are failing, and it touched off a wave of local, state, and federal reform efforts. Since A Nation at Risk, most national reform reports have recommended widespread teacher leadership (Barth, 2001) as a means to turn around failing schools. A second national report catalyzing education reform efforts was published by the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986). There were many proposals made by the Carnegie Task Force to reform America's schools, but one of the main ideas was the concept of a teacher leader. The proposal set forth by the task force was to "find ways of making the skill, wisdom, and knowledge of the school's best teachers available both to the principal and to other teachers" (Tucker & Mandel, 1986, p. 27).

Although researchers agree that teacher leadership is a critical factor in the reformation of schools (Boles & Troen, 1996; Smylie, Conley, & Marks, 2002; Moller & Katzenmeyer, 1996), helps to eliminate hierarchical structures in schools (Murphy, 2005), and supports other school reform efforts such as professional learning communities (Horn, 2005), research conducted on the preparation of teacher leaders at the college/university level is conspicuous by its absence. There is a very limited amount

of research conducted on the process of developing teachers to become teacher leaders within their classrooms, schools, and districts. Given the scarcity of research on the development of teacher leadership, research needs to be conducted on the structure of teacher leadership programs at colleges and universities to provide a clear understanding of the goals and desired outcomes of each program and find commonalities and discrepancies between programs, as well as how these program goals align with the emerging conceptions of teacher leadership.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to conduct a descriptive analysis of Master's in Teacher Leadership programs who are members of the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). The study described the types of institutions in which teacher leadership programs exist using common university categories and classifications. The study also identified what comprises these teacher leadership programs in terms of general program and course descriptors. Finally, this study focused on whether the goals and objectives of the core courses of these programs are aligned with the Teacher Leader Standards as developed by the Teacher Leader Exploratory Consortium (2008). Commonalities and differences between programs are emphasized, and assessments are made regarding the alignment of these programs' emphases with teacher leadership standards. Specifically, the study addressed three research questions:

1) In what types of institutions do Master's in Teacher Leadership programs exist, and where are they located?
2) What courses and general program descriptors comprise Master's

in Teacher Leadership programs?

3) Are the embedded goals of Master's in Teacher Leader programs aligned with teacher leadership standards?

Overview of Research Methods

A mixed-methods approach was used in this study. Quantitative methods were used in answering research questions one and two, and qualitative methods were employed to answer research question three, specifically focusing on document analysis.

The websites of the 656 National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education member schools as listed on the NCATE website were accessed, and their graduate programs were researched looking for program offerings in Master's in Teacher Leadership described on their websites. Of the 656 NCATE schools, 28 of those institutions offered a program focusing on Teacher Leadership at the Master's level. The sample for this study includes all 28 of those NCATE institutions for research questions one and two. For research question three, the 28 schools included in the study were culled down to those institutions that provided online access to the course syllabi used in core courses of their Master's in Teacher Leader programs. Three schools met this criterion and became the sample for research question three.

To explore research question one, the Carnegie Foundation Classifications were modified to fit the purpose of this study and used to classify the sample institutions. Each sample institution was researched on the Carnegie Foundation website, and their Carnegie classifications were recorded in a spreadsheet from which frequencies and valid percents were calculated. Also as a part of research question one, the 2010 Census Bureau classifications served as a framework. The state in which each sample institution

is located was recorded and placed into a spreadsheet under the correct region and division classifications for that state. Frequencies and valid percentages were then calculated from these data.

To assess research question two, the websites of each sample institution were accessed to ascertain their general program descriptors and core course offerings. If the general program descriptors or core course offerings were not clearly defined on the website, the contact person for the program was either called or emailed for clarification. This information was then placed into a spreadsheet from which descriptive statistics were calculated.

To address research question three, the three institutions that had provided online access to teacher leadership core course syllabi were included in the sample. A document analysis was conducted on the core course syllabi to identify the embedded goals of the courses and program. The findings were then compared to the Teacher Leader Model Standards/ Domains as deemed by the Teacher Leadership Exploratory Consortium (2008), as those are the standards which the Consortium contends that all teacher leaders should possess.

Summary of Findings

Research Question One

Carnegie Foundation Classifications

Graduate Instructional Program Classifications

Research question one was focused on the identification of the types of institutions in which Master's in Teacher Leadership programs exist and where these institutions can be found in geographical location. In researching the Carnegie

Foundation Classifications, looking specifically at the category of Graduate Instructional Program Classification, it was uncovered that the largest representation of schools in the study was found to be included in the category of Postbac-A&S/Ed. These institutions awarded master's degrees in arts and sciences and professional fields, and the field with the largest number of graduate degrees was education. With the realization that only 28 of the 656 NCATE schools (4.2%) offered Master's programs in Teacher Leadership, it is not surprising that this category showed the highest frequency. This data suggests that schools that are education dominant are able to offer more degrees in the field of education including those that are very specific, such as Teacher Leadership. It could be speculated that since these schools are education focused, they also have a broader range of faculty members with different strengths who are able to teach in more specified fields of education. On the contrary, the category of S-Postbac/Ed, in which institutions awarded Master's degrees in education but not in other fields, was only represented one time out of the 28 schools. This finding is inconsistent with the contention that education dominant institutions tend to offer a wider range of degrees in education. This contradiction could possibly be explained by the fact that this lone institution was also categorized as S4/HR under the size and setting classification: enrollment data shows enrollment of 1,000 – 2,999 degree-seeking students across undergraduate and graduate programs. If other schools that are categorized as S-Postbac/Ed also show low enrollment profiles, this could be the reason as to why more Teacher Leadership programs did not show up under this category; they have fewer students enrolled and may not have the numbers to support offering a more concentrated Master's degree program. With small enrollments, institutions may focus on the broader Master's programs in

education in order to appeal to the needs of their small audience. It could also be assumed that these smaller schools have fewer faculty members that are able to teach in specified fields such as teacher leadership.

Enrollment Profile Classification

Within the enrollment profile classification under the Carnegie Foundations Classifications, the highest frequency of schools within the study was found to be categorized under the HU: high undergraduate classification. Schools in this category show both undergraduate and graduate/professional students, with graduate students accounting for 10-24% of enrollment. It can be speculated that schools in this category have a large enough enrollment and interest in graduate level degrees in education that these institutions are able to offer emerging graduate programs such as those in teacher leadership, as well as having the qualified faculty to teach in these programs. The one school in the study that represented the classification of MGP: majority graduate/professional, once again was also categorized in size and setting as S4/HR: enrollment data shows enrollment of 1,000 – 2,999 degree-seeking students across undergraduate and graduate programs. This indicates that even though this institution is mainly focused on graduate students, which one would assume would tend to offer more graduate programs, is actually a small school with low enrollment and is not able to offer a wide range of different Master’s degrees and may also have fewer faculty members which would limit their program offerings. Since no schools in the study represented ExGP: exclusively graduate/professional, the same would be speculated for the institutions under this category. Thus, institutional size appears to interact with graduate

instructional program classifications and enrollment profile classifications appears to effect the offering of Master's in Teacher Leadership programs.

Size and Setting Classification

Still focusing on the Carnegie Foundation Classifications, the classification of size and setting was also researched. It was found that the majority of schools in the study reported being classified under this category as either a large or medium four-year school with very little representation under the small four-year categories and no representation under the very small four-year classifications. This fact further supports the contention that larger colleges and universities have the luxury of offering more degree programs in a specified field such as Teacher Leadership. With more students to fulfill enrollment needs, and more faculty to meet the teaching demands of offering more degree programs such as Teacher Leadership in this case, these colleges and universities to cater to those students with specific goals, such as those wishing to become teacher leaders. With low enrollment profiles, and assuming limited human and fiscal capital, the small and very small schools probably do not have the numbers to support offering a wider range of Master's programs in a single field, instead, focusing on a smaller, more broadly encompassing range of degree offerings.

Basic Classification

The final assessed classification within the Carnegie Foundation was basic classification. The majority of schools in the study, 60.7%, were categorized under the classification of Master's/L: Master's colleges and universities (larger programs); these institutions awarded at least 50 Master's degrees. It is logical that the colleges and universities under this category are larger institutions in terms of enrollment because of

the fact that they are able to offer at least 50 different degree programs at the Master's level. This lends further support to the researcher's conclusion that larger institutions are able to offer more specified degree programs such as teacher leadership because of more demand from a higher population of students, as well as a more diverse faculty who are able to teach across different concentrations. Based on similar logic, one could speculate on why there was no representation of schools from focus/specialty institutions, which are those institutions where a high concentration of degrees (above 75%) is in a single field or related field. These schools are specifically focused on one area of study, leaving only a very small percentage of their students (at least less than 25%) engaged in other fields of study. Where these schools are not education dominant, they probably do not have the enrollment interest or the qualified faculty in the field of education to offer various degree programs, especially more specialized programs such as Teacher Leadership.

Census Bureau Classifications

To research the geographical location of institutions that offer a Master's in teacher leadership program, the 2010 Census Bureau was used to categorize the states. An overwhelming majority of schools included in the study, 85.6%, were found within the Midwest or South. To further narrow down the regions and divisions, 15 of the 28 schools included in the study, 53.5%, are located within six states: Illinois (4), Kentucky (3), Ohio (3), Tennessee (3), Michigan (1), and Wisconsin (1). All of these states are located together and are connected with each other in terms of borders. One possible explanation for this concentration is that two of these states, Kentucky and Ohio, were part of the five-state consortium on teacher leadership. The consortium focused on

“developing teacher leaders and the shared district and university responsibility for identifying and nurturing aspiring leaders as well as developing performance-based, job-embedded learning experiences focused on leadership for student learning” (Troupe et al., 2008, p.1). These states have become the leaders across the United States in establishing teacher leadership programs within their states, explaining the abundance of programs in these two states. Furthermore, Kentucky as passed a legislation mandating the development of teacher leadership in all Master’s of Education programs.

Another possible explanation for a large amount of teacher leadership programs being present in these states is that two of the leading researchers on the topic of teacher leadership reside in two of the states. Joseph Murphy is a professor at Vanderbilt University located in the state of Tennessee, and Mark Smylie is a professor at the University of Illinois at Chicago. Their vast knowledge of teacher leadership and passion for this area of education could possibly have been a driving force in the establishment of several teacher leadership programs in their states. It could be argued further that the close proximity of experts through the consortium and leading researchers located within the Midwest and South regions have lead to the early adoption of Master’s in Teacher Leadership programs within these regions. Consultation to support the establishment and implementation of successful teacher leadership programs may be more readily accessible for those located within close proximities to national experts and other successful teacher leader programs.

The lack of programs in the Western and Northeastern part of the United States could also possibly be explained by similar reasoning, specifically vast distances from the location of the teacher leader five-state consortium and the location of the leading

researchers within the field. With few teacher leader programs located in these regions, it may be harder to establish new programs when there are no close programs in which to model themselves after, as well as consulting with experts in the field being more difficult due to their vast distance. The implications of the lack of teacher leadership involvement in the western and northeastern parts of the United States have visibly stifled the growth of this area in education in those locations. As teacher leadership programs continue to emerge, it will be important to ascertain if the gap in numbers of programs widens between those regions, because it seems through the research that bordering states have more programs in teacher leadership versus stand-alone states that have no boarding states with programs in teacher leadership. If these programs lead to school improvement, efforts to develop them in more regions of the United States would be critical to provide more teachers access to programs explicitly designed to develop teacher leadership.

Research Question Two

Courses and Program Descriptors

Within research question two, the researcher focused on describing courses and general program descriptors that comprise teacher leadership Master's programs. The first emphasis of this question was the type of degree that would be earned upon completion of the program requirements. Although all of the programs included in the study were those offering Master's degrees in Teacher Leadership, the actual name of the degree was coded differently among institutions. Of the schools in the study, 42.8% of them were coded as a Master's in Education either as a MED or ME. A Master's in Arts,

coded as MAED or MA had a frequency rate of 39.2%. Lastly, a Master's in Science, was coded as a MS, MSE, or MSED, had a frequency rate of 17.7%.

Required Credit Hours

The next aspect of question two that was researched was the amount of hours required by each program for degree completion, disaggregated by total hours required, core hours, and elective hours. Of the 28 schools in the study, 28.5% of those institutions had a total hour requirement of 30 hours, which was of the largest representation. Across all total hours, an overwhelming majority of 88.7% had a total hour requirement of between 30-36 total hours. Assuming these courses follow the standard of each course being worth three credit hours, each student would be completing between ten and twelve courses to attain the degree. The program that required the most hours mandated 48 hours. However, some of the courses at this institution are worth four hours each. Consequently, they require that the students complete 15 courses in order to fully complete the program and attain the credential. It is worth noting that an additional six hours of tuition can cost over $3,000 at the institutions in the sample. This is a significant amount given the earnings potential of teacher and raises questions about return on investment and the extent to which tuition may be a deterrent for aspiring teacher leaders to further their formal education.

After researching the number of core and elective hours required by each program, a wide range of requirements was found. The range for core hours spanned from 12 core hours up to 48. The highest frequencies reported, with 14.2% each, were the core hours of 15, 27, and 32.

After studying the elective hours allowed by each institution, zero elective hours allowed showed the highest frequency with a rate of 35.7%. This finding demonstrates that a large number of teacher leadership programs have a well-defined course of study and want more control over the courses that the students complete. It could be inferred that these programs have a clear definition of the knowledge, skills, and dispositions they think a teacher leader should possess and have their courses carefully aligned with this definition to ensure consistency among their teacher leader graduates. It could also be interpreted that these institutions have a more narrow view of the roles of a teacher leader, and this may negatively influence the nature of their teacher leader candidates' future plans. For the schools that offer more elective courses, it could be concluded that they have a less clear definition of teacher leadership or a more broad definition of teacher leadership. It is also possible that they can offer more and a broader range of courses since these programs are more likely to be in institutions with larger enrollments and therefore more faculty. Regardless of the reason, it is clear that some programs allow their students more freedom in choosing elective courses. Within this literature review, it was uncovered that there were many positions and different roles that a teacher leader could fulfill. It may be that the institutions who are allowing more elective courses are aware of this and are allowing their candidates to choose which path of teacher leadership they would like to pursue in order to fulfill their individual goals of being a teacher leader.

Student Status

The next component of research question two focused on whether students had maintain full-time status, part-time status, or could choose their status. The majority of

schools in the study, 53.5%, reported that they allow their students to choose whether they would like to attend full-time or part-time, but the majority of those schools disclosed that the majority of the students enrolled in their teacher leadership programs choose part-time status. Additionally, 39.2% of schools in the study mandate that their students attend part-time, while only 7.1% of the schools mandate full-time status. Collectively, these findings indicate that the vast majority of teacher leadership programs are designed to accommodate individuals who are working full-time, specifically employed teachers. This finding aligns with several definitions of teacher leadership found in the literature. For example, Pellicer and Anderson (1995) emphasize that teacher leadership primarily is concerned with teachers helping teachers develop so they can better serve students. Similarly, Fay (1992a) posits that a teacher leader is a practicing teacher, and Ash and Persall (2000) describe teacher leadership as expert teachers. Such definitions, along with the vast majority of institutions allowing the candidates to be part-time status, demonstrates that these programs are designed with the schedules of working teachers in consideration and are geared towards those individuals. The preponderance of programs serving part-time teachers does raise one concern. Only full-time students have access to federal financial aid, which has recently been redefined to exclude students taking only six hours. Again, this may limit access by many aspiring teacher leaders.

Course Delivery Method

Course delivery method was also studied. These methods include face-to-face only, online only, or a hybrid combination of the two. The face-to-face only delivery method and the hybrid of face-to-face and online had equal frequency rates of 39.2%,

while the online only delivery method was implemented at 21.4% of the institutions. Topper (2007), reported that there are no statistically significant differences between students' evaluations of graduate courses offered in face-to-face compared to online. Despite such research, it is unclear why these institutions deliver teacher leadership programs via different media. Factors such as program access to technology, the comfort of faculty teaching on-line, pressures to compete for access to more students to raise or maintain enrollment, student demand, and attitudes regarding the perceptions of the relative effectiveness or ineffectiveness of these delivery methods are likely factors. Clearly, studies comparing the effectiveness of Teacher Leadership programs delivered via different methods are warranted.

Culminating Project

As a part of question two, the research also studied whether teacher leadership programs require their candidates to complete a culminating project before degree completion. Somewhat surprisingly, all 28 schools in the study require a culminating project before degree completion. Although there were twelve different requirements found across the 28 schools, 67.6% of them required an action research project as part of their culminating project, either as a standalone assignment or paired with other tasks. Stringer (2007), who has written voluminously about action research, defines it as "a systematic approach to investigation that enables people to find effective solutions to problems they confront in their everyday lives" (p. 1). Stringer (2007) contends that action research provides the means by which people in schools, businesses, and community organizations may increase the effectiveness of the work in which they are engaged. It assists them in working through the sometimes puzzling complexity of the

issues they confront to make their work more meaningful and fulfilling. The definition of action research as a means to increase effectiveness and solve problems is congruent with two of the goals of teacher leadership emphasized in the literature. Specifically, teacher leaders are problem solvers who acknowledge problems and contemplate a variety of solutions. They are constantly looking for ways to improve schooling and are not satisfied with the status quo (Martin, 2005). From this perspective, the requirement of an action research project is an effective tool for teacher leader candidates to begin practicing the skills needed by effective teacher leaders. Such projects are consistent with the benefits of work-embedded learning.

Courses in Teacher Leadership Programs

The final aspect of research question focused on the courses that comprise teacher leadership Master's programs. The core required courses from each of the 28 institutions were researched and placed into course categories according to their titles. The highest representation of courses uncovered were research courses such as action research/projects (10.3%) and research methods (7.5%) for a combined rate of 17.8%. The literature review did not emphasize the need for teacher leaders to be researchers in the most traditional sense, but Domain II of the Teacher Leader Model Standards states that the teacher leaders will access and use research to improve practice and student learning. Knowing that action research is seen as a means to increase effectiveness and solve problems (Stinger, 2007), offering such courses is an important component in preparing teachers to become teacher leaders. Such courses enable the evaluation of school programs and strategies, and may build the capacity of school personnel to make sense of the abundance of data to which they have access.

The very wide range of the types of courses represented across the institutions seems is further evidence that a clear and consistent definition of teacher leadership does not exist, which was concluded after the literature review. Wigginton (1992) notes that the phrase of teacher leadership "itself is frustratingly ambiguous" (p. 167). This broad range of courses indicates that teacher leadership means different things to different people, in beliefs regarding the knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed by teacher leaders.

Given this diversity in definitions and programs, it is important to ascertain not only what courses are emphasized but which ones may be missing across programs as well. Collaboration/supervision was a requirement in 12 (4.8%) out of the 255 courses researched. "The principle of teacher collaboration is at the core of developing teacher leadership" (Harris, 2005, p. 22). Further, "it has become clearer that teachers learn in communities that are long-term and collaborative" (Lieberman & Mace, 2009, p. 459). Given that collaboration is such an important component of teacher leadership, it can be argued there should be a larger representation of courses that focus on collaboration to better prepare future teacher leaders for this important interpersonal skill.

The community relations courses (2.0%) and educational advocacy (0.8%) also appear underrepresented. Both topics, along with collaboration, are standards/domains within the Teacher Leader Model Standards developed by the Teacher Leader Exploratory Consortium. The consortium contents that all teacher leaders should possess these standards. Moreover, Lieberman and Miller (2004) emphasize that advocacy a pivotal role of a teacher leader because advocates speak up for what is best for student learning. Sheldon and Epstein (2005) have identified parent involvement as an important

factor for the academic success of children on the relationship of parent involvement with mathematics achievement in their study of 18 schools. With the amount of importance placed on these three standards, as well as empirical research to support their importance, it is logical that these courses should have been more represented across the programs within the study.

One could also contend that a few course categories may be overrepresented across the programs within the study. School law courses, which had a frequency rate of 3.9%, may be less necessary for teacher leaders. This course was included 10 times across program core course requirements, with no institution offering a course of this nature more than one time. In other words, a school law course was present in 10 of the 28 institutions (35.7%). This is conspicuous due to the lack of mention in the literature indicating that school law knowledge is an important aspect of teacher leadership. This course is more relevant within a principal certification program, which leads the researcher to assume the possibility of some institutions simply revamping their current principal programs in order to offer a degree program in teacher leadership. This course does not fit any current definitions of teacher leadership and is not aligned with the teacher leader model standards, which makes it an unnecessary course in developing emerging concepts of teacher leaders.

The course category of philosophy/history of education also seems to be unnecessary in teacher leadership programs. Once again, nothing in the review of the literature alludes to the importance of teacher leaders being knowledgeable about the philosophy and history of education. Although this type of course was only seen five times for a frequency rate of 2.0%, it could possibly be taking the place of another course

in which would better develop candidates to be teacher leaders within the emerging concepts of the role. Finally, overrepresented courses also increase the total tuition incurred by aspiring teacher leaders.

Research Question Three

Alignment of Program Goals with the Teacher Leader Standards

Research question three assessed the extent to which the embedded goals of teacher leadership Master's programs are aligned with emerging concepts of teacher leadership, specifically the Teacher Leader Standards/Domains created by the Teacher Leadership Exploratory Consortium. Of the 28 institutions included in the study, three provided access to core course syllabi online. A document analysis of these institution's core course syllabi was conducted in order to identify course goals objectives, assigned readings, and assignments for the purpose of evaluating their alignment with the Teacher Leader Standards.

Alignment at University One

It was clear that the main goal of the teacher leadership program for university one was research since four of their five required courses addressed this domain. Course goals at this university are close to being evenly distributed across all domains except domains VI and VII. As a reminder, Domain VI focuses on improving outreach and collaboration with families and community and the focus of Domain VII is advocating for student learning and the profession. There was nothing within the course work that had their candidates reach out and collaborate with families and communities. In other words, teacher leadership is operationalized within school walls. Domain VII is underrepresented as well. Advocacy was only touched on briefly within course five, with

the course objective of having the students articulate a personal definition of teacher leadership and the change process to support teacher leadership in their state, district, school, and classrooms. However, there was no concrete evidence in the program of the students actually receiving this information or putting it into practice. Thus, university one should consider revamping some of their courses or coursework in order to fully align their goals with those of the teacher leader model standards, specifically Domains VI and VII.

Alignment at University Two

University two put most of their program's emphasis on Domain I: Fostering a Collaborative Culture to Support Educator Development and Student Learning, since it was covered in four of their six required courses. Those courses are Instructional Supervision for Educational Leaders, Developing Professional Learning Communities, Administration and Supervision for Educational Leaders, and Grant Writings for Educational Leaders. The domains that need to be addressed further within university two's program are Domains V, VI, and VII. Domain V, which centers on promoting the use of assessments and data for school and district improvement, was not present in any of the required courses. Killion (2007) points out that teacher leaders often hold titles such as instructional specialists and curricular specialists, and assessments are a large part of curriculum and instruction. Thus, it is critical for teacher leader programs to address the issue of assessments and data as stated in Domain V.

Domain VI was briefly touched on in course two with the objective of the candidates to foster relationships with school colleagues, parents, and agencies in the larger community. However, actual attention to this objective based on other evidence in

the syllabi leads to the concern that this area may need more concentration in order for teacher leaders to be successful in this area. Domain VII was addressed in course five with the assignment of having the students create a public relations program for literacy, which could be argued would in return be advocating for literacy programs, but still seems to fall short in giving the students a solid background on how to advocate for their profession and student learning. Like university one, university two appears to be under emphasizing external relations outside of the school. Since course three at university two is a school law course, which does not meet any of the needs addressed within the literature or within the Teacher Leader Model Standards, these credits could be better utilized if the topics under Domains V, VI, and VII were addressed. In order for university two's program goals to be aligned with the Teacher Leader Model Standards, personnel need to add more concepts and actual practice in these inadequately addressed domains.

Alignment at University Three

After reviewing the course objectives, readings, and assignments of core courses at university three, this researcher concludes that all of the Teacher Leader Model Standards have been fully addressed across this program. Although some of the domains were only addressed one time throughout the program, as seen within the two other universities, this program includes more authentic tasks in order to better instill these knowledge, skills, and dispositions in their teacher leader candidates. The one component that arguably could be addressed with university three is the inclusion of a school law course. This course, once again does not align with the emerging conceptions of teacher leadership found within the literature or as a part of the Teacher Leader Model

Standards. It is not the thought that knowledge of school law is completely unnecessary for teacher leaders, but the concept was not seen throughout the literature or within the model standards, so instead of mandating an entire course of school law, the concepts could be embedded within the other core courses so that the students would still emerge from the program with school law knowledge. The credits for this course could then be utilized to further develop the concepts in the Teacher Leader Model Standards, only further strengthening this university's program. It could also be dropped to reduce tuition expenses or replaced by an elective targeted to any specific needs of a teacher leader beyond those articulated in the standards. Even with the seemingly overrepresented school law course, this university's program goals are still fully aligned with the emerging concepts of a teacher leader according to the Teacher Leader Model Standards as deemed by the Teacher Leader Exploratory Consortium.

Implications for Practice

Data from this study support the recommendation for more colleges and universities in different states to develop teacher leadership programs, especially the states in the West and Northeast divisions, since they were so sparsely represented in the study. School reform reports emphasize the importance of teachers providing active leadership in restructuring the nation's schools (Boles & Troen, 1996). Whitaker (1995) agrees by stating that teacher leadership is essential to school improvement and suggests that if educators want to see reforms occur within their systems, teacher leadership is a key component. Teacher leadership also plays a positive role in the way teachers feel about their profession. Hart and Baptist (1996) followed teachers after completing a Leadership Development of Teachers program and found that 83% of these teachers

perceived a positive impact in career and professional development, personal and self-development, and work-place and work behaviors. Furthermore, teacher leadership is also essential in increasing student achievement. In a study conducted by Hallinger and Heck (2009) to test the effect of collaborative leadership on reading achievement, results show that positive change in collaborative leadership was significantly related to growth in academic capacity (standardized $y = 0.51$, $p < .05$). The reasons above are compelling pieces of evidence supporting the need of teacher leaders to be within all schools across the United States in order for schools to be more successful, teachers to have positive experiences in their profession, and increase student achievement. Research also shows that teachers need quality training in order to become a teacher leader (Sherill, 1999; Ovington, 2002); teachers cannot be expected to gain these skills on their own. This further reiterates the need for more colleges and universities to offer teacher leadership programs, especially in geographical regions not containing these programs, so teachers can be better prepared to be teacher leaders within their schools and reap the many benefits that comes with being a teacher leader.

A second recommendation for teacher leadership programs is to continue the requirement of a culminating project or add one before degree completion and to make it standard across all programs for this project to be an action research project consistent with Stinger's definition. Stringer (2007) defines action research as "a systematic approach to investigation that enables people to find effective solutions to problems they confront in their everyday lives" (Stringer, 2007, p. 1). Stringer (2007) goes on to suggest that action research provides the means by which people in schools, businesses, and community organizations may increase the effectiveness of the work in which they

are engaged. It assists them in working through the sometimes puzzling complexity of the issues they confront to make their work more meaningful and fulfilling. Similarly, Vivekananda-Schmidt (2011) describes action research as "a methodology for self-inquiry" (p. 153). Writers on action research argue that it has the potential to transform personal practice and empower teachers as professionals, giving them an opportunity to examine the theory and practice of teaching (McMahon, 1999). With such powerful evidence on the positive outcomes of action research, it is recommended that all candidates in teacher leader programs be required to complete an action research project before degree completion. It is further recommended that the topics of research should be chosen by the candidates based on their future career goals as a teacher leader, and still aligned with the goals of the Teacher Leader Model Standards. Action research can enable teacher leaders to solve authentic problems schools face, thus making their coursework more meaningful and likely to transfer to practice.

Implications for Policy

Ackerman and Mackenzie (2006) report that teacher leaders generally are experienced teachers who have tested their beliefs about teaching and learning and codified them into a platform that informs their practice. Fay (1992a) agrees by positing that a teacher leader is a practicing teacher. With the realization that the majority of those interested in becoming a teacher leader and pursuing a degree in this field are going to be practicing teachers, it is the recommendation that colleges and universities never mandate that their students must be enrolled in their teacher leadership programs full-time. It is logical that requiring full-time status would potentially deter interested candidates from pursuing this degree due to their already demanding professional lives

and schedules. Furthermore, leaving the status of enrollment up to the candidate or automatically mandating part-time status would attract more potential teacher leaders to these programs due to the flexibility in scheduling and consideration of their already established careers. These courses also should be delivered with the schedules of working teachers in mind; offering courses in the evening as opposed to during the day when candidates would potentially be at work would open up the possibility of degree completion to a wider population and to more experienced teachers.

Second, institutions should align their definition of teacher leadership with the emerging conceptions of the term and align their course work with that definition. Although not an actual definition, the Teacher Leadership Model Standards should provide one model on which institution's definitions should be based. The concepts within the Teacher Leader Model Standards are backed up in the literature and cover a wide range of important factors that encompass being a teacher leader. Institutions may create programs that address additional standards, but at a minimum, all of the Teacher Leader Model Standards should be addressed.

Third, consistent with the second recommendation, since the majority of total hours required for program completion were between 30 and 36 hours, it is recommended that seven of those courses, which would typically be 21 hours if each course is worth three credit hours, be completely focused on the Teacher Leadership Model Standards, having the main focus of each course be on one of the standards/domains. The remainder of the hours required for program completion could then be chosen by the student and geared towards their future plans as a teacher leader, since the literature makes it clear that there are many capacities in which a teacher leader can thrive. For example, Killion

(2007) laid out several roles the elective hour choices could encompass such as resource provider, instructional specialist, curriculum specialist, learning facilitator, mentor, school leader, data coach, and catalyst for change. Lieberman and Miller (2004) express three possible roles in which the elective hour choices could embody including advocates, innovators, and stewards. As an additional factor affecting the total number of credit hours required by the program, develops should consider total tuition costs and include only courses essential to the development of teacher leadership. This may provide access to additional aspiring teacher leaders with financial constraints. Former partnerships with districts that have program costs could also increase access to teachers.

The final implication for policy is to mandate that all teacher leadership programs provide access to their course syllabi online, open for all interested stakeholders to view. Only three out of the twenty eight institutions in the study provided on-line access to their course syllabi. If outsiders could view course syllabi, there would be three main benefits. First, potential teacher leaders interested in teacher leadership programs could have a clearer view of the individual program goals and would be better equipped to choose the program that best meets their individual needs. Secondly, individuals researching existing teacher leadership programs could use this information to possibly help them create new teacher leadership programs in other colleges and universities. The availability of the syllabi could also help to achieve the previous recommendation of establishing more teacher leadership programs throughout the United States, especially in those states where sparse representation of teacher leadership programs were found. At one level, it was surprising that only 28 NCATE institutions had Master's in Teacher Leadership programs described on their websites at the time of data collection for this

study. On another level, it was not surprising since teacher leadership is in its infancy. With that said, programs are emerging rapidly. Policies and practices that enable universities to learn from one another can only facilitate the development of more effective programs.

Implications for Future Research

Since Killion (2007) and Lieberman and Miller (2004) delivered many different possible roles of teacher leaders, it would be valuable to research the goals of students who are currently enrolled in teacher leadership programs. Their motivations for enrolling in a teacher leadership Master's program would be interesting to study, as well as their future goals of becoming a teacher leader and the extent to which the program's facilitated their abilities to be successful in these roles when attained. The information uncovered could better help colleges and universities to structure their programs in order to better meet the demands and goals of future teacher leaders and lead researchers to better understand the capacities in which future teacher leaders intend to practice. Teacher leadership is understudied at all levels and thus via all methods, but questions such as the above place a premium on qualitative approaches

Second, the elective course choices within teacher leadership Master's programs need to be researched. This study provided a limited view of the program goals by focusing solely on required core courses. Researching the elective courses should uncover additional program goals and outcomes not able to be seen through the core courses alone. That said, it is important to note that all participants don't participate in the same or any electives for that matter. Thus, standards met only in certain electives would not be covered for all students.

Next, it would be valuable to research more core course syllabi within established teacher leader programs. This study was only able to find three universities who had access to their course syllabi online, but it could be possible to obtain more core syllabi if instructors or the contact person for teacher leader programs at different institutions were contacted. Obtaining and researching more core course syllabi could potentially strengthen the findings within the study or possibly lead the researcher to a different conclusion.

Even though there were only two institutions in the study that mandated their teacher leader students be enrolled at full-time status, it would be interesting to research the motivation behind this decision. Knowing that individuals interested in pursuing a Master's in Teacher Leadership will almost certainly be dominated in numbers by those who already hold teaching positions. It is left uncovered as to why those two institutions, 7.1% of the sample, decided to market their program to individuals other than practicing teachers. Research should be conducted to reveal the underlying goals of these programs and their target populations for enrollment since it seems it is individuals other than practicing teachers and other explanations like full-time graduate assistantships and sabbaticals are very limited.

Next, within this study, the course delivery method – face-to-face only, online only, or a hybrid of the two – varied and was only counted. The motivations for this decision by each institution were not researched. It is important to uncover the factors affecting the decision of delivery method and if K-12 student preference, program costs, convenience, faculty choice, or other factors were reasons. Since Topper (2007) reports that there are no statistically significant differences in students' evaluations of courses

offered in either format from graduate students enrolled in face-to-face courses and graduate students enrolled in online courses, the motivation of delivery method choice could lead to the discovery of additional findings such as student preference, institutions trying to reach a broader audience, faculty choice/comfort level, or the institutions access to the technology needed to provide online courses. More importantly, the effectiveness in developing teacher leadership via different delivery models should be accessed. Ineffective delivery models should not be offered simply for convenience and to increase enrollment.

It could also be beneficial to research the professional development opportunities offered by different school districts. Professional development is an important component of the continuing education of practicing teachers and presents a unique opportunity to reach the teachers who have already received a Master's degree and who do not plan to continue their education. Researching the professional development sessions of different school districts could possibly uncover teacher leadership focused sessions that are being delivered to the districts' teachers. Research on those districts and on their teacher leadership professional development could possibly reveal that teacher leadership can be taught in avenues other than through Master's programs at colleges and universities.

The last recommendation for further research is to study the faculty members who are teaching in Master's in teacher leadership programs. Their educational background and professional experience could undergird the reasons why different institutions have such diverse programs goals. The knowledge of the faculty members in teacher leadership Master's programs and their reasons for the courses they teach could provide

explanations for why there was such a range of required core courses across programs and institutions.

Concluding Thoughts

Teacher leadership is clearly a construct that is receiving increasingly widespread support for many reasons including but not limited to its relationship with increased student achievement, ability to increase capacity for reform, and its empowering nature consistent with flatter organizations and principles of adult learning. Teacher leadership can also be seen in many different formal and informal roles within a school and school system. With that in mind, teacher leadership still remains somewhat ambiguous and is in need of a clearer and more broadly accepted operational definition. In the absence of clearly defining teacher leadership, it is obviously more difficult to develop, select, and retain teacher leaders.

This study was an attempt to shed light on the structures of Master's in Teacher Leadership programs in terms of the Carnegie Classifications of Institutions of Higher Education, geographic location, general program descriptors, and their alignment with the Teacher Leader Model Standards. It is hoped that this work adds to the body of evidence on teacher leadership and influences discussions on the development of new graduate programs as well as future research in these areas.

References

Abowitz, D, & Toole, T. (2010). Mixed method research: Fundamental issues of design, validity, and reliability in construction research. *Journal of Construction Engineering & Management*, *136*(1), 108-116.

Ackerman, R. & Mackenzie, S. (2006). Uncovering teacher leadership. *Educational Leadership*, May, 66-70.

Agunloye, O. (2012). *EDLR 6500: Curriculum development for educational leaders*. Department of Educational Leadership, Counseling and Special Education, Augusta State University, Augusta, GA

Aier, D. (2011). *EDUC 597: Special topics in education: Trend and issues in education*. George Mason University, Fairfax, VA

Alexander, K., & Alexander, M. D. (2011). *American public school law*. Wadsworth Pub Co.

Ash, R. & Persall, M. (2000). The principal as chief learning officer: Developing teacher leaders. *NASSP Bulletin*, May, 15-22.

Barth, R. (1998). Principals, teachers, and school leadership. *Phi Delta Kappan,* 69(9), 639-642.

Barth, R. (2001). Teacher leader. *Phi Delta Kappan*, February, 443-449.

Beck, L. G. & Murphy, J. (1993). *Understanding the principalship: A metaphorical analysis, 1920s-1990s*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Berry, B. & Ginsberg, R. (1990). Creating lead teachers: From policy to implementation. *Phi Delta Kappan,* 71(8), 616-621.

Boham, L. & Deal, T. (2003). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice and leadership*. (3rd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Boles, K. & Troen, V. (1994). School restructuring by teachers: A study of the teaching project at the Edward Devotion School, paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

Boles, K. & Troen, V. (1996). Teacher leaders and power: Achieving school reform from the classroom. In Moller & Katzenmeyer (Eds.), *Every teacher as a leader: Recognizing the Potential of teacher leadership* (pp.41-62). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bon, S. (2012). *EDLE 612: Education law*. George Mason University, Fairfax, VA.

Boudett, K. P., City, E. A. & Murnane, R. J. (2005). *Data wise: A step-by-step guide to using assessment results to improve teaching and learning.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.

Bradley-Levine, J. (2011). Using case study to examine teacher leader development. *Journal of Ethnographic & Qualitative Research*, *5*, 246-267.

Brewer, J. & Hunter, A. (1989). *Multimethod research: A synthesis of styles*, Sage, Newbury Park, Calif.

Bronger, T. (2012). *EDAP 638: Instructional strategies for diverse learners.* Department of Teaching and Learning, University of Louisville, Louisville, KY.

Brown, S. (2012a). *EDAP 607-75: Teacher leadership in practice*. Department of Teaching and Learning, University of Louisville, Louisville, KY.

Brown, T. (2012b). *EDAP 637: Using assessment to improve student achievement*. Department of Teaching and Learning, University of Louisville, Louisville, KY.

Bullough, R., Burbank, M., Gess-Newsome, J., Kauchak, D. & Kennedy, C. (1998). What matters most: Teaching for America's future? A faculty response to the report of the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future. *Journal of Education and Teaching*, *24*(1), 7-33.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor. *Occupational Outlook Handbook, 2012-13 Edition*, High School Teachers. Retrieved from http://www.bls.gov/ooh/education-training-and-library/high-school-teachers.htm

Burke, K. A. (2009). *The principal's role in supporting teacher leadership and building capacity: Teacher and administrator perspectives.* University of California, San Diego. *ProQuest Dissertations and Theses,*185. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/250832937?accountid=10628. (250832937).

Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986). *A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the Twenty First Century.* New York: Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy.

Caulley, D. N. (1983). Document analysis in program evaluation. *Evaluation and Program Planning,(6),* 19-29.

Carraway, R. (2012). *EDLR 6550: Instructional supervision for educational leaders*. Department of Educational Leadership, Counseling, and Special Education, Augusta State University, Augusta, GA.

Census Bureau, U.S. (2009, August 21). *Census regions and divisions of the united states*. Retrieved from http://www.census.gov/geo/www/us_regdiv.pdf on July 14, 2011.

Clark, D. L. & Meloy, J. M. (1989). Renouncing bureaucracy: A democratic structure for leadership in schools. In T. J. Sergiovanni & J. A. Moore (Eds.), *Schooling for tomorrow: Directing reform to issues that count* (pp. 272-294). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Conley, D. T. (1993). Roadmap to restructuring: Policies, practices and the emerging visions of schooling. Eugene: University of Oregon, ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.

Coyne, M. D., Kame ennui, E. J. & Carnine, D. W. (2011). *Effective teaching strategies that accommodate diverse learners.* Fourth Edition. Upper Saddle River: Pearson.

Creighton, T. B. (1997, March). *Teachers as leaders: Is the principal really needed?* Paper presented at the Annual Conference on Creating Quality Schools, Oklahoma City, OK. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED411117).

Creswell, J. (2003). *Research Design*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Crowther, F., Kaagen, S., Ferguson, M. & Hann, L. (2002). *Developing teacher leaders: How teacher leadership enhances school success.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Crowther, F. & Olsen, P. (1997). Teachers as leaders – An exploratory framework. *International Journal of Educational Management,* 11(1), 6-13.

Dana, N. & Yendol-Hoppey, D. (2009). *The reflective educator's guide to classroom research: Learning to teach and teaching to learn through practitioner inquiry*. (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Darling-Hammond, L., Bullmaster, M. L. & Cobb, V. L. (1995). Rethinking teacher leadership through professional development schools. *The Elementary School Journal*, *96*(1), 87-107.

Duke, D. (1994). Drift, detachment, and the need for teacher leadership. In D.R. Walling (Ed.), *Teachers as leaders: Perspectives on the professional development of teachers* (pp. 255-273), Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.

Duncan, A. & Skelly, T. U.S. Department of Education, (2011). *U.S. department of education fy 2010 annual performance report*. Washington, D.C.: Retrieved from http://www2.ed.gov/about/reports/annual/2010report/fy2010-apr.pdf

Dunne, K. & Villani, S. (2007). *Mentoring new teachers through collaborative coaching.* San Francisco, CA: WestEd.

Edlow, J. M. (2008). *Teacher leadership in the urban community: Teachers becoming a change agent in the school system.* Northcentral University. *ProQuest Dissertations and Theses,*115. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/304833086?accountid=10628. (304833086).

Elmore, R. F. (1993). School decentralization: Who gains? Who loses? In J. Hannaway & M. Carnoy (Eds.), *Decentralized and school improvement* (pp. 33-54). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Fade, S. (2003). Communicating and judging the quality of qualitative research: The need for a new language. *Journal of Human Nutrition & Dietetics*, *16*(3), 139-149.

Fay, C. (1992a, April). *The case for teacher leadership: Toward definition and development.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA.

Fay, C. (1992b). Empowerment through leadership: In the teachers' voice. In C. Livingston (Ed.), *Teachers as leaders: Evolving roles* (pp. 57-90). Washington, DC: National Education Association.

Fitzgerald, T. & Gunter, H. (2008). Contesting the orthodoxy of teacher leadership. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 11(3), 331-340.

Fraenkle, J., & Wallen, N. (2012). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. (8th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill

Frost, D. (2008). 'Teacher leadership': values and voice. *School Leadership and Management*, 28(4), 337-352.

Frost, D. & Durrant, J. (2003). Teacher leadership: Rationale, strategy, and impact. *School Leadership & Management,* 23(2), 173-186.

Gehrke, N. (1991). *Developing teachers' leadership skills.* Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education.

Gerlach, G, & Giles, S. (1999). Intervention for marginal preservice teachers. C*ontemporary Education*, *70*(2), 38-42.

Glatthorn, A.A., Boschee, F., & Whitehead, B.M. (2009). *Curriculum Leadership: Strategies for Development and Implementation* (2nd.ed). Thousand Oaks CA: Sage.

Glickman, C., Gordon, S., & Ross-Gordon, J. (2010). *Supervision and instructional leadership: A developmental approach*. (8th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Hallinger, P. & Heck, R. (2009). Leadership for learning: Does collaborative leadership make a difference in school improvement. *Educational Management, Administration, and Leadership,* 38(6), 654-678.

Hambright, G, & Franco, M. (2008). Living the "tipping point": Concurrent teacher leader and principal preparation. *Education*, *129*(2), 267-273.

Hansen, R. & Brady, E. (2011). Solving problems through action research. *The LLI Review,* 82-90.

Harris, A. (2003). Teacher leadership as distributed leadership: Heresy, fantasy, or possibility? *School Leadership and Management*, 23(3), 313-324.

Harris, A. (2005). Improving schools through teacher leadership. *Education Journal*, 59, 22-23.

Harris, A., & Muijs, D. (2003). Teacher leadership and school improvement. *Education Review, 16*(2), 39-42.

Harris, P. (2012a). *EDLR 6440: Developing professional learning communities.* Department of Educational Leadership, Counseling and Special Education, Augusta State University, Augusta, GA

Harris, P. (2012b). *EDLR 6630: Administration and supervision of literacy programs.* Department of Educational Leadership, Counseling and Special Education, Augusta State University, Augusta, GA

Harris, P. (2012c). *EDLR 6650: Grants writing for educational leaders.* Department of Educational Leadership, Counseling and Special Education, Augusta State University, Augusta, GA

Harrison, C. & Killion, J. (2007). Ten roles for teacher leaders. *Educational Leadership*, 65(1), 74-77.

Harrison, J. & Lembeck, E. (1996). Emergent teacher leaders. In G. Moller & M. Katzenmeyer (Eds.), *Every teacher as a leader: Realizing the potential of teacher leadership* (pp. 101-116). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Hart, P., Baptist, B. (1996). Developing teacher leaders: A state initiative. In G. Moller & M. Katzenmeyer (Eds.), *Every teacher as a leader: realizing the potential of teacher leadership* (pp. 85-100). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Hatfield, R. C. (1989, December). *Redesigning faculty curriculum leader roles.* (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED319677).

Helterbran, V. R. (2010). Teacher leadership: Overcoming 'i am just a teacher' syndrome. *Education*, *131*(2), 363-371.

Holden, G. (2008). Knowledge-building and networking: The leadership for learning case. *School Leadership and Management*, 28(4), 307-322.

Hook, D. P. (2006). *The impact of teacher leadership on school effectiveness in selected exemplary secondary schools.* Texas A&M University. *ProQuest Dissertations and Theses,* 161-161 p. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/304932019?accountid=10628. (304932019).

Hord, S.M. & Sommers, W.A. (2008). *Leading professional learning communities.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Horn, I. S. (2005). Learning on the job: A situated account of teacher learning in high school mathematics department. *Cognition & Instruction,* 23(2), 2007-236.

Hutchinson, N.L., Munby, H., Chin, P., Edwards, K.L., Steiner-Bell, K., Chapman, C., Ho, K., & Mills de Espana, W. (2001). The intended curriculum in co-operative education in Ontario secondary schools: An analysis of school district documents. *Journal of Vocational Education Research, 26,* 103-140.

Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium. (1996). *Standards for school leaders.* Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers.

Jackson, S. (2009). *Research methods and statistics: A critical thinking approach*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Pub Co.

Kahrs, J. (1996). Principals who support teacher leadership. In G. Moller & M. Katzenmeyer (Eds.), *Every teacher as a leader: Realizing the potential of teacher leadership* (pp. 19-40). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Katzenmeyer, M. & Moller, G. (2001). *Awakening the sleeping giant: Helping teacher develop as leaders* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Kelly, J. A. (1994). The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards: Toward a community of teacher leaders. In D.R. Walling (Ed.), *Teachers as leaders: Perspectives on the professional development of teachers* (pp.299-313). Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa.

Kelley, J. D. (2011). *Teacher's and teacher leaders' perceptions of the formal role of teacher leadership.* Georgia State University. *ProQuest Dissertations and Theses,* 223. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/887699463?accountid=10628. (887699463).

Kent, A. (2005). Acknowledging the need facing teacher preparation programs: Responding to make a difference. *Education*, *125*(3), 343-348.

Kentucky Board of Education, Council on Postsecondary Education and Education Professional Standards Board Commonwealth of Kentucky (2010). Resolution Supporting the Adoption and Integration of the KENTUCKY Core Academic Standards Across Kentucky's Education System. Retrieved from http://cpe.ky.gov/nr/rdonlyres/3848c051-a626-4a31-91af-a560a975aa9f/0/ccsresolution.pdf

Kentucky Department of Education (2007). *Kentucky's guide to reflective practice.* Retrieved from http://www.education.ky.gov/users/otl/Reflective/Reflective%20Guide.pdf

Kets de Vries, M., & Korotov, K. (2010). Developing leaders and leadership development. *INSEAD Working Papers Collection.* Retrieved from http://search.ebscohost.com

Killion, J. (1996). Moving beyond the school: Teacher leaders in the district office. In G. Moller & M. Katzenmeyer (Eds.), *Every teacher as a leader: Realizing the potential of teacher leadership* (63-84). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Lambert, L. (1998). *Building leadership capacity in schools.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Lambert, L. (2002). A framework for shared leadership. *Educational Leadership*, 59(8), 37-40.

Lambert, L. (2003a). *Building leadership capacity in schools for lasting school improvement.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Lambert, L. (2003b). Leadership redefined: An evocative context for teacher leadership. *School Leadership and Management*, 23(4), 421-430.

Lambert, L. (2007). Lasting leadership: Toward sustainable school improvement. *Journal of Educational Change*, 8, 331-322.

Latt, J. (2005). *EDUC 598: Directed reading, research, and individual projects.* George Mason University, Fairfax, VA.

Leithwood, K. & Duke, D. (1999). A century's quest to understand school leadership. In K. S. Louis & J. Murphy (Eds.), *Handbook of research on educational administration,* 2nd ed., (pp. 45-72). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Leithwood, K., Day, C., Sammons, P., Harris, A., & Hopkins, D. (2006). *Seven strong claims about successful school leadership.* Nottingham: National College for School Leadership.

Lichtman, M. (2011). *Understanding and evaluating qualitative educational research*. Sage Publications, Inc.

Lieberman, A. & Mace, D. (2009). The role of 'accomplished teachers' in professional learning communities: Uncovering practice and enabling leadership. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and practice*, *15*(4), 459-470.

Lieberman, A. & Miller, L. (1999). *Teachers transforming their world and their work*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Lieberman, A. & Miller, L. (2004). *Teacher leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Lindsey, D., Martinez, R. & Lindsey, R. (2007). *Culturally proficient coaching: Supporting educators to create equitable schools.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Lipton, L. & Wellman, B. (2003). *Mentoring matters: A practical guide to learning-focused relationships,* 2nd ed. Sherman, CT: MiraVia LLC.

Little, J. (1988). Assessing the prospects for teacher leadership. In A. Lieberman (Ed.), *Building a professional culture in schools* (pp. 78-106). New York: Teachers College Press.

Little, J. (2003). Constructions of teacher leadership in three periods of policy and reform activism. *School Leadership and Management*, 23(4), 401-419.

MacKeracher, D. & Jantzi, D. (1985). Policies and objectives in science education. In F. M. Connelly, R. K. Crocker & H. Kass (Eds.), *Science education in Canada: Vol. I. Policies, practices, and perceptions* (pp. 130-149), Toronto: OISE.

MacLean, M. & Mohr, M. (1999). *Teacher-researchers at work*. (2nd ed.). Berkley, CA: National Writing Project.

Marshall, C. & Rossman, G. (2011). *Designing qualitative research*. Sage Publications, Inc.

Martin, B. (2007). Teacher leaders: Qualities and roles. *Journal for Quality & Participation*, *30*(4), 17-18.

McGatha, M. (2010). *EDAP 677: Teacher leadership: Coaching and mentoring*. Department of Teaching and Learning, University of Louisville, Louisville, KY.

McMahon, T. (1999). Is reflective practice synonymous with action research? *Educational Action Research*, 7(1), 163-169.

McMillan, J. H. (2008). Assessment essentials for standards-based education, (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

McMurray, M. (2012). *The impacts of the school principal on building leadership capacity and teacher leaders.* Walden University. *ProQuest Dissertations and Theses,* 414. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1115142721?accountid=10628. (1115142721).

Moller, G, & Katzenmeyer, M. (1996). *Every teacher as a leader: Realizing the potential of teacher leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Murphy, J. (1990). The educational reform movement of the 1980s: A comprehensive analysis. In J. Murphy (Ed.), *The reform of American public education in the 1980s: Perspectives and cases* (pp. 3-55). Berkeley, CA: McCutchan.

Murphy, J. (2005). Connecting teacher leadership and school improvement. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983). A nation at risk. *Communications of the ACM*, *26*(7), 469-478.

National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1996). What matters most: Teaching for America's future. New York: Teachers College Press.

Nicholls, G. (2010). Professional development, teaching, and lifelong learning: the implications for higher education. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, *19*(4), 370-377.

Odell, S. (1997). Preparing teachers for teacher leadership. *Action in Teacher Education,* 19(3), 120-124.

Oduro, G.L. (2004). Distributed leadership in schools. *Education Journal,* 80, 23-25.

Ogawa, R. & Bossert, S. (1995). Leadership as an organizational quality. *Educational Administration Quarterly,* 31, 224-243.

Ovando, M. (1996). Teacher leadership: Opportunities and challenges. *Planning and Changing*, 27, 30-44.

Ovington, J. (2002). An early distance learning success story: The teacher leader program. College Student Journal, 36(3), 387-398.

Pellicer, L. O., & Anderson, L. W. (1995). *A handbook for teacher leaders.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Perkins, D. (2003). *King Arthur's Round Table: How collaborative conversations create smart organizations.* New Jersey: Wiley.

Pfoutz, B. (2010). *EDLE 610: Leading schools and communities.* George Mason University, Fairfax, VA.

Phelps, P. (2008). Helping teachers become leaders. *Clearing House*, *81*(3), 119-122.

Porterfield, K., & Carnes, M. (2008). *Why school communication matters*. Lanham, Md: Rowman & Littlefield Education

Rhodes, S. (2012). *EDLR 6430: School law.* Department of Educational Leadership, Counseling and Special Education, Augusta State University, Augusta, GA.

Robertson, J. (2009). Coaching leadership learning through partnership. *School Leadership and Management*, 29(1), 39-49.

Roby, D. (2011). teacher leaders impacting school culture. *Education*, *131*(4), 782-790.

Rooney, J. (2004). Sharing the decisions. *Educational Leadership*, *62*(3), 84-85.

Sheldon, S. B., & Epstein, J. L. (2005). Involvement counts: Family and community partnerships and math achievement. *The Journal of Educational Research, 98,* 196–206.

Sherrill, J. (1999). Preparing teachers for leadership roles in the 21st century. *Theory Into Practice*, 38(1), 56-61.

Silns, H. & Mulford, B. (2002). Leadership and school results. In Leithwood, K. and Hallinger, P. (Eds.), *Second International Handbook of Educational Leadership and Administration* (pp. 267-292). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic.

Silva, D. Y., Gimbert, B., & Nolan, J. (2000). Sliding the doors: Locking and unlocking possibilities for teacher leadership. *Teachers College Record,*102(4), 779-804.

Simmons, T. (2012). *EDAP 639: Research analysis in special education*. Department of Teaching and Learning, University of Louisville, Louisville, KY.

Smylie, M. (1995). New perspectives on teacher leadership. *The Elementary School Journal*, 96(1), 3-7.

Smylie, M. A. & Brownlee-Conyers, J. (1992). Teacher leaders and their principals: Exploring the development of new working relationships. *Educational Administration Quarterly,* 28(2), 150-184.

Smylie, M.A., Conley, S., & Marks, H.M. (2002). Exploring new approaches to teacher leadership for school improvement. In J. Murphy (Ed.), *The educational leadership challenge: Redefining leadership for the 21st century* (pp. 162-188). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Smylie, M. A., & Hart, A. W. (1999). School leadership for teacher learning: A human and social capital development perspective. In J. Murphy & K. S. Louis (Eds.), *Handbook of research on educational administration* (2nd ed.), pp. 421-441). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Southworth, G. (2002). Think piece from NCSL, *Times Educational Supplement*, 6 December.

Spillane, J., Halverson, R. & Diamond, J. (2001). Investigating school leadership practice: A distributed perspective. *Educational Researcher,* 30(3), 23-28.

Stake, R. (2010). *Qualitative research: Studying how things work*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Stringer, E.T. (2007). *Action research* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.

Strodl, P. (1992, March). *A model of teacher leadership.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Eastern Research Association, Hilton Head, SC.

Teacher Leader Master's and Planned Fifth-Year Programs. (2008). Education Professional Standards Board.

Teacher Leadership Exploratory Consortium (2008). *Teacher leader model standards.* Retrieved from www.teacherleaderstandards.org/index.php

Teital, L. (1996). Finding common ground: Teacher leaders and principals. *New Directions for School Leadership*, 1, 139-154.

The carnegie classification of institutions of higher education. (n.d.). Retrieved from http://classifications.carnegiefoundation.org/ on July 1, 2011.

The national council for accreditation of teacher education (ncate). (2010). Retrieved from http://www.ncate.org/Standards/NCATEUnitStandards/UnitStandardsinEffect2008/tabid/476/Default.aspx

Topper, A. (2007). Are they the same? Comparing the instructional quality of online and face-to- face graduate education courses. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *23*(6), 681-691.

Troupe, M., Bell, A. & Springate, E. Education Professional Standards Board. (2008). *Teacher leader master's and planned fifth-year programs*.

Tucker, M, & Mandel, D. (1986). The carnegie report: A call for redesigning the schools. *The Phi Delta Kappan*, *68*(1), 24-27.

Upperman, J. (2007). *EDLE 620: Organizational theory and leadership development.* George Mason University, Fairfax, VA.

Upperman, J. (2011). *EDLE 618: Supervision and evaluation of instruction*. George Mason University, Fairfax, VA.

U.S. department of education glossary of terms. (2004, July 24). Retrieved from http://www2.ed.gov/nclb/index/az/glossary.html?src=az#3

U.S. department of education. (2010, December 6). Retrieved from http://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/esea02/index.html

Urbanski, A. & Nickolaou, M. B. (1997). Reflections on teacher leadership. *Educational Policy,* 11(2), 243-254.

Vivekananda-Schmidt, P. (2011). A reflection on developing an undergraduate course: the value of an action research approach. *Education for Primary Care*, 22, 152-158.

Wasley, P. (1991). *Teachers Who Lead: The rhetoric of reform and the realities of practice,* New York: Teachers College Press.

Wasley, P. (1992). Working together: Teacher leadership and collaboration. In C. Livingston (Ed.), *Teacher leaders: Evolving roles* (pp. 21-55). Washington, DC: National Education Association.

West, T. (2006). The courage to lead. In R. Ackerman & S. Mackenzie (Eds.), *Inside and out: A teacher leader reader.* San Francisco: Crown Press.

Wetzler, J. (2010). Developing teachers as leaders. *Change*, *42*(6), 25-32.

Whitaker, T. (1995a). Accomplishing change in schools: The importance of informal teacher leaders. *Clearing House,* 68(6), 356-358.

Whitaker, T. (1995b). Informed teacher leadership – The key to successful change in the middle level school. *NASSP Bulletin,* 79(567), 76-81.

Whitaker, T. & Valentine, J. (1993). How do you rate? How effective school leaders involve staff members. *Schools in the Middle*, 3(2), 21-24.

Wigginton, E. (1992). A vision of teacher leadership. In C. Livingston (Ed.), *Teachers as leaders: Evolving roles* (pp. 167-173). Washington, DC: National Education Association.

Williams, J. (2007). Revolution from the faculty lounge: The emergence of teacher-led schools and cooperatives. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 89(3), 210-216.

Williams, P. & Sheridan, S. (2006). Collaboration as one aspect of quality. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 50(1), 83-93.

Yarger, S. J. & Lee, O. (1994). The development and sustenance of instructional leadership. In D. R. Walling (Ed.), *Teachers as leaders: Perspectives on the professional development of teachers* (pp. 223-237). Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa.

York-Barr, J. & Duke, K. (2004). What do we know about teacher leadership? Findings from two decades of scholarship. *Review of Educational Research*, *74*(3), 255-316.

Zimpher, N. L. (1988). A design for the professional development of teachers. *Journal of Teacher Education,* 39(1), 53-60.

APPENDIX A:

CENSUS BUREAU REGIONS AND DIVISIONS OF THE UNITED STATES MAP

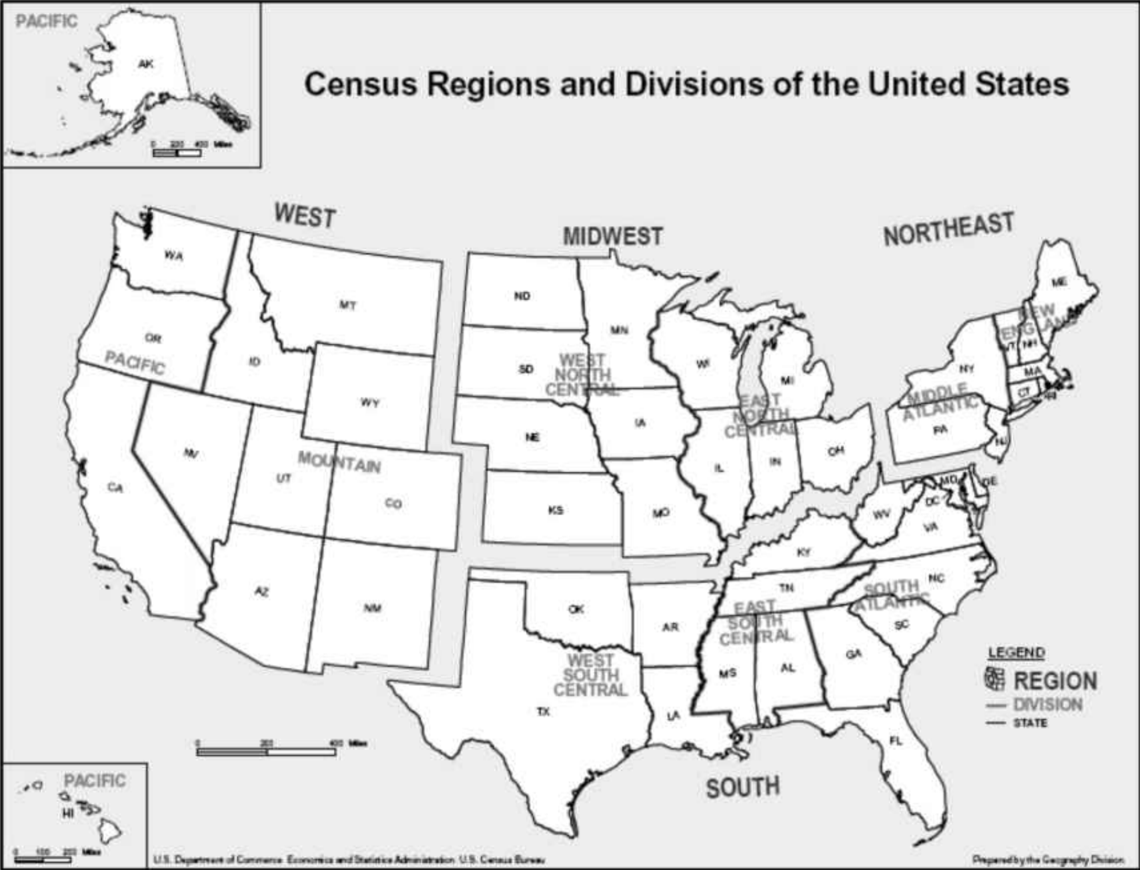


Figure 2. Census Bureau Map

514 LAFAYETTE CIRCLE • IRVINE, KY 40336
PHONE (859) 200-6023 • E-MAIL CRETIA_MAINOUS@MYMAIL.EKU.EDU

CRETIA MAINOUS

Curriculum Vita

ACADEMIC BACKGROUND

Eastern Kentucky University *Richmond, KY*

Degree Educational Doctorate, December 2012
Specialization Educational Leadership and Policy Studies

Dissertation Topic "A Descriptive Analysis of the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education Master's in Teacher Leadership Programs from 1980 – Present"

Committee Members Charles Hausman (Chair), Sherwood Thompson, Deborah West, Amy Galloway

Eastern Kentucky University *Richmond, KY*

Degree Masters of Arts in Education, May 2007
Specialization Secondary Education, Family and Consumer Science

The University of Kentucky *Lexington, KY*

Degree Bachelor of Science, May 2003
Specialization Family and Consumer Science Education
Certification FCS Grades 5-12

PROFESSIONAL CERTIFICATES

Kentucky Teaching Certificate, Family and Consumer Science grades 5-12

Kentucky Teacher Internship Program, Resource Teacher

PERSONAL EXPERIENCE

Teacher Leader 2003-Present
Powell County High School *Stanton, KY*
Family and Consumer Science

Assume all responsibilities of a regular classroom teacher including: professional development, communications with parents, assessments of students, staff meetings, and committee meetings. Collaborate with cooperating teacher to design curriculum and lesson plans. Self-directed and enthusiastic with a passionate commitment to student development and the learning experience. Skilled in designing challenging, enriching, and innovative activities that address the diverse interests and needs of students. Possess outstanding communication skills, presents information in a variety of ways, emphasizing relevance of class material to the world beyond the classroom. Active team member who effectively collaborates with all levels of staff members and establishes quality relationships with students. Experience in: curriculum design and development, cooperative learning, interactive learning, student-centered learning, differentiated instruction, student motivation, classroom management, curriculum map development, student assessment, formative assessment, summative assessment, and aligning core content 4.0, vocational, and skill standards curriculum.

Family and Consumer Science Department Chair 2010-Present
Powell County High School *Stanton, KY*

Established educational goals and tied each goal to a budget that I wrote, presented, and managed. Lead monthly meetings where as a department we worked to improve student learning and to develop unique methods of parent involvement. Developed the master schedule with principal for the Family and Consumer Science department. Department representative on the Special Education District Review Team.

PUBLICATIONS

Cleveland, R., Chambers, J., **Mainous, C**., Powell, N., Skepple, R., Tyler, T., & Wood, A. (2011). School culture, equity, and student academic performance in a rural appalachian school. *Kentucky Journal of Excellence in College Teaching and Learning*, *9*, 35-42.

PRESENTATIONS

Mainous, C. and Newman, A. (July 2010). *Family and Consumer Science Best Practices.* Symposium presented at the annual Kentucky Association for Career and Technical Education Conference.

Chambers, J. and **Mainous, C**. (July 2011). *Getting to Know Yourself as a Leader: An Interactive Session.* Symposium presented at the annual Kentucky Association for Career and Technical Education Conference.

Mainous, C. (November 2011). *Family and Consumer Sciences Best Practices.* Symposium presented at the annual Association for Career and Technical Education National Conference.

HONORS AND AWARDS

Advisor to 5 National Family, Career and Community Leaders of America Power of One Winners, 2010

Advisor to 5 National Family, Career and Community Leaders of America Be Part of It Winners, 2010

Kentucky Occupational Skill Standards Assessment passing rate of 60% in the Early Childhood career cluster compared to a state passing rate of 30%; awarded more passing certificates to students than any other FCS Early Childhood teacher in the state of Kentucky, 2011

PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Association for Career and Technical Education
Kentucky Association for Career and Technical Education
Kentucky Association for Teachers of Family and Consumer Science

References Available Upon Request