Abstract

A View of Teacher Leadership and Conditions

of Support in Jewish Day Schools

This study focuses on the conditions that support teacher leadership in Jewish day schools. The literature suggests that there are five conditions that support teacher leadership in general education: role definition, trust, adult learning community, professional learning, and time. Based on surveys from 53 teachers and school leaders in Jewish day schools, this study measured the frequency of teacher leadership behaviors in Jewish day schools. The study also examined which of these five conditions were significant in promoting teacher leadership behaviors in Jewish day schools. Some of the most frequent teacher leadership behaviors in Jewish day schools such as: consulting with your colleagues about students, leading conversations about curriculum, observing your colleagues teaching were noted in this study. In addition, the conditions that support teacher leaders in general education were in some cases the same as the conditions which support teacher leadership in Jewish day schools. Much of the teacher leadership behavior that was seen in Jewish day schools can be directly attributed to these conditions of support. This study highlights the significance of teacher leadership behaviors and delineates the measures that schools can enact to sustain these behaviors.

A View of Teacher Leadership and Conditions

of Support in Jewish Day Schools

by
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Chapter I—Introduction

The position of teacher leader is a unique one, not exactly a hybrid of teaching and administration, but rather an opportunity for teachers who want to expand their impact beyond one classroom. Principal and head of school are the most common roles associated with school leadership. In a national survey of over 1,000 public school teachers in America, while only 16% wanted to become a principal, 51% percent wanted a hybrid role that combined some form of teaching and school leadership (Markow, Macia, & Lee, 2013). These results suggest that a role that allows teachers to work both inside and out of their classrooms is desired, hence the teacher leader. In teacher leadership, teacher leaders retain as their primary role the teaching of children, but they also assume a leadership role outside of their classroom, working with colleagues to reflect on their practice and enhancing the conversation about teaching and learning in the school. The hybrid model of teaching, and leading others to think about teaching and learning, allows teacher leaders to continue their work in a classroom while also forming a career path that allows them to continuously grow in their profession (Barth, 2001; Danielson, 2006; Markow et al., 2013; Wasley, 1992). While there are teachers that assume leadership roles not directly related to teaching and learning, such as substitute coordinators, student activities directors, and others, for the sake of this study, they will not be included in my definition of teacher leaders.

Teacher leadership supports teachers' growth and benefits schools as well. School leadership would be more stable if teachers could assume leadership roles; 75% of principals reported that the job has become too complex (Markow et al., 2013) and, understandably, 69% of teachers therefore never want to assume the role of principal. The MetLife study strongly endorses teacher leadership, arguing it "emerges as a potential resource for translating big

challenges into opportunities, served by hybrid roles for teachers as leaders and as a method for addressing professional growth and satisfaction" (Markow et al., 2013, p. 51).

Similar to public schools in America, Jewish day schools seem to be experiencing a leadership crisis with a shortage of qualified administrators. In a 2016 survey about school leadership in 338 Jewish day schools in America, 41% of the school leaders had been in their current positions for only three or fewer years (Kidron, Greenberg, & Schneider, 2016). Similarly, in a 2017 report by Rosov Consulting studying 304 Jewish schools, just under half of the principals and heads of schools had been in their current roles for less than three years (Rosov Consulting, 2017). This suggests that maintaining leaders is difficult. The 2017 study reports that while there are many people with the qualifications to become Jewish day school leaders, people do not want the positions for various social, financial, and political reasons (Rosov Consulting, 2017). This suggests that the findings of the MetLife survey, which reported that 69% percent of teachers never want to assume the role of principal, may also be true in Jewish day schools. If maintaining top-level leadership is difficult, perhaps teachers in Jewish day schools would consider a hybrid role that combines teaching and leadership. Teacher leadership could potentially support existing leaders or fill a leadership gap in Jewish day schools.

Though teacher leaders take on different roles in their schools, there are similar themes that contribute to their success. The research on teacher leadership shows that teacher leaders require a specific set of environmental factors to thrive in a school. In this study, I will explore the five major factors that have been attributed to supporting the success of teacher leadership:

- *Role definition*—clearly defined roles for teachers and administrators, with open communication among the adults in the school,

- *Trust*—a foundation of trust in the community,

- *Adult community*—a culture of adult learning with a shared vision,

- *Professional learning*—leadership training or professional development,

- *Time*—time allotted for leadership tasks.

(Acker-Hocevar & Touchton, 1999; Barth, 2001; Danielson, 2006; Jackson, Burrus, Basserr, & Roberts, 2010)

Barth points out other factors that affect the ability of teacher leaders to succeed, such as budgets to pay the teacher leaders, which will be incorporated as a factor of time in this study, and state-regulated testing that restricts instruction, which affects Jewish day schools less than their public counterparts (Barth, 2001). The complex nature of schools and the complexity of the profession of teaching, as outlined by Ball and Cohen (1999)—beginning with the preparation of teachers to enter the field through the daily life of a teacher—are variables affecting the success of teacher leadership. In this study, I will explore the five major themes that can be measured in the day-to-day life of a school.

Over the past six years, I served as a coach for the Masters in Teacher Leadership program at Brandeis University. This program prepares teacher leaders in Jewish day schools, public schools, and charter schools in North America. Through the program, I have seen many experienced and highly regarded teachers assume the role of teacher leader in their schools. Amongst them, there were teachers who, objectively, seemed to be excellent candidates for teacher leadership. They demonstrated an understanding of the principles of leadership in their written work, they could structure an agenda for a learning community that was well built and incorporated learning goals, and their supervisors nominated them to learn how to be better leaders, a testament to their perceived position at the school. Despite this strong leadership

profile, some of these same teachers were not successful when they assumed teacher leadership roles in their schools.

Conversely, there were teacher leaders who were not as organized and did not have the skills to plan and lead a teacher learning session, but despite these obstacles at the onset of the program, they were able to launch successful teacher leadership initiatives in their schools over the two-year program. There were still other teacher leaders who were very successful in their initial school, but were no longer seen as leaders when they moved to another school and therefore saw lower levels of success in their leadership efforts. After seeing this phenomenon time and time again, I wanted to better understand what conditions in the school environment might contribute to the success of teacher leaders. What conditions in the school contribute to teacher leader success, and do these differ in the setting of a Jewish day school compared to a public school?

Jewish day schools are private,[1] faith-based institutions that offer a dual curriculum including general education as well as Judaic studies. These schools teach a general education curriculum that mirrors that of public schools, but they are also committed to spending a portion of the day teaching Jewish religion and/or culture, including the Hebrew language and classic Jewish texts in Hebrew and other languages. Jewish day schools often have two distinct faculty groups, the general studies staff and the Judaic studies staff. There are Jewish day schools that serve four-year-old children through high school students, while others may include only one segment of the nursery–high school population. Schools vary widely in size depending on many factors, such as size of the Jewish community, denomination, and other school options in the area

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[1] In some provinces in Canada, particularly Montreal, the Jewish day schools are not private. They are independently run government schools that need to adhere to all of the laws instituted by the Ministry of Education.

(Schick, 2014). In some ways, Jewish day schools function like any other school in their area, but there are factors that might make teaching and leadership in Jewish day schools different.

The first Jewish day schools in America were established in 1803 to support the Spanish and Portuguese community of New York City. These schools did not last long, and with the rise of public schools, most Jewish day schools were no longer functioning by the 1870s (Sarna, 1998). Jewish education remained chiefly supplementary to local public schools until the middle of the twentieth century, with the rise of what Americans today think of as Jewish day schools (Zeldin, 1984). Between these two eras of established Jewish day schools, there was a period of deep conversation about how to best educate children in the supplementary school championed by Sam Benderly (Krasner, 2011). The "Benderly Boys" spent considerable time thinking about how to prepare educators to teach children, what should be taught, and what pedagogical approaches worked best. Since the rise of Jewish day schools, there have been many organizations and foundations that have invested considerable time and money into answering these same questions.

This study will explore the teacher leader role in a very particular cultural setting. Every school is, in essence, a learning community, not only for children but also for adults, with teachers and school administrators learning together. Jewish day schools are a community within a community; in many cases, teachers and administrators are also parents in the school, and many Jewish day schools admit students from a particular synagogue community where the teachers, administrators, parents, and students interact daily, both in and out of school (Kaplowitz, 2002). One of the factors in a teacher's decision to work at a Jewish day school is, in fact, the community (Tamir & Lesik, 2013). It might be the case that the factors that help or hinder the success of teacher leaders in public schools may be different in the Jewish day school

microclimates. Through the exploration of the literature on teacher leadership and the school factors that support its success, I hope to consider how the Jewish day school environment might present unique challenges or opportunities. This study will attempt to tease out the conditions in Jewish day schools, both those universal to all schools and those unique to a religious, private school setting that supports teacher leaders.

Chapter II—Literature Review

Teacher leaders are teachers whose primary role is to teach children, and whose secondary role involves the creation of meaningful experiences about teaching and learning for their colleagues. Five major factors have been identified as contributing to the success of teacher leaders in schools (Acker-Hocevar & Touchton, 1999; Barth, 2001; Danielson, 2006; Jackson et al., 2010). This study will explore whether these factors are similar in Jewish day schools, which are unique school environments in the North American landscape of schools.

Wasley (1992) defines teacher leadership as "the ability…to engage colleagues in experimentation and then examination of more powerful instructional practices in the service of more engaged student learning" (p. 170). York-Barr and Duke (2004) analyzed two decades of research on teacher leadership. They explain that teacher leaders take on various roles in schools, sometimes formal, such as department heads, curriculum specialists, and mentors, and other times informal, such as peer coaches, parent liaisons, and models of teacher collaboration or self-reflection. Jackson et al. (2010) have compiled a comprehensive table with nine definitions of teacher leadership from various other studies. Although there are differences among researchers' definitions of teacher leader—based on their relative autonomy, sphere of influence (whole-school influence versus small group influence), and formality of leadership position—the basic tenet of teacher leadership is that teachers teaching children also work to enhance the adult conversation about teaching and learning (Jackson et al., 2010).

The five factors that have been identified as critical to the success of teacher leadership will be explored throughout this literature review. The first is role definition: clearly defined roles for teachers and administrators with open bidirectional communication between the two. The second is a foundation of trust among the teachers and between the teachers and

administrators within a school. The third factor is a school-wide culture of adult learning with a

shared vision. Leadership training or professional development is the fourth factor. The fifth

factor is sufficient time allotted for leadership tasks (Acker-Hocevar & Touchton, 1999; Angelle,

2016; Barth, 2001; Danielson, 2006; Jackson et al. 2010).

Historical Background and Changing Roles of Teacher Leaders

To understand the importance of these five factors, the reader must first consider the

evolution of teacher leader roles throughout history. In the late 1970s, Brownlee (1979) studied

244 teachers and 8 principals at 10 Chicago public schools. Brownlee was interested in the

extent to which these teachers were acting as leaders. She gave the teachers and principals a

questionnaire that contained the name of each teacher in the school who worked more than half

time. The study participants were then asked to rate each teacher on a five-point scale to

ascertain the teachers' influence in a positive, negative, or neutral manner in areas such as

curriculum, special programs, students, and parent participation. The teachers who were

identified as teacher leaders were, in general, the most experienced in the school, the most highly

educated, and older than their peers. Their colleagues, both principals and other teachers, all

identified the same teachers as teacher leaders (Brownlee, 1979). Brownlee acknowledges that

there were teachers who held leadership positions outside of the classroom; however, she

remarked that "in the literature on educational leadership little attention is given to the teacher as

an educational leader in the school other than in the classroom" (1979, p. 119). Brownlee added

that school administrators and teachers need to learn to work together to optimize the leadership

capacity of teachers.

Teacher leadership has evolved over the four decades since Brownlee's work. Diane

Silva, Belinda Gimbert, and James Nolan described the evolution of teacher leadership in three

waves since the early 1980s. In the first wave, teachers were assigned formal leadership roles serving as department chairs to help administrators with managerial jobs (Angelle, 2016; Little, 2002; Silva, Gimbert, Nolan, 2000). In the second wave, in the mid-1980s, teacher leaders were categorized as "instructional leaders," and they would instruct their fellow teachers on various forms of pedagogy while remaining outside of the classroom themselves (Angelle, 2016; Silva et al., 2000). This new wave took advantage of the instructional knowledge of the teacher leaders and allowed them to have a direct impact on the teaching in their schools by acting as curriculum developers or mentor teachers (Angelle, 2016). One of the unanticipated downfalls of this second wave was the "remote controlling" of teachers (Darling-Hammond, 1988; Shulman, 1987; Silva et al., 2000). These teacher leaders were tasked with designing packaged curricular materials for teachers, taking away teacher autonomy, and creating simplistic solutions to complex teaching problems. As a direct outgrowth of these two waves, the third wave of teacher leaders in the late 1980s and early 1990s was tasked with "reculturing" schools. This new wave of teacher leaders provided a way for teachers to take part in the organizational conversation about the schools in which they teach (Silva et al., 2000). This model of teacher leadership is the current framework, with teacher leaders shaping the culture and discourse about teaching and learning within a school. These teacher leaders exhibit an emphasis on collegiality, collaboration, and continuous learning (Angelle, 2016; Darling-Hammond, 1988; Lieberman, 1988; Silva et al., 2000). It is this third wave of teacher leaders that I will be exploring in this research. This wave consists of classroom teachers who are shaping the conversation about teaching and learning with their own colleagues by leading professional learning communities (PLCs), organizing teaching rounds, and leading book clubs and lesson studies, to name a few.

The Roles of Teacher Leaders in Schools

Teaching has largely been a flat profession with little room for growth. Teachers are expected to perform the same way no matter how many years they have been in the classroom (Danielson, 2006; Darling-Hammond, 2010). Charlotte Danielson explains that given the lack of growth during a teacher's career, many teachers yearn for wider reach beyond their classrooms. She suggests that teachers experience a "leadership itch." These teachers understand that student learning extends beyond the one-on-one interaction with a teacher, and as teacher leaders, they want to influence the larger system of school (Danielson, 2006). Traditionally, these teachers would have to leave their classrooms to become administrators or union representatives, but many teachers do not want to leave teaching altogether. They want to think deeply about the teaching and learning that goes on in classrooms and influence the way that children in schools are taught from within the classroom. They want to collaborate with their colleagues, to impact the way teaching and learning advances in schools.

What Do Teacher Leaders Do?

In this third wave of teacher leadership, teacher leaders are connected to the classroom work of teaching and learning. They focus on developing the support of teachers in the classroom, using their expertise, and leading the professional development of their colleagues (Rowan, 1990; Shulman, 1987; Smylie, Mayrowetz, Murphy, Louis 2007; Wasley, 1992). There are some schools that have adopted the formal role of teacher leader by naming teachers as department chairs, team leaders, master teachers, or mentors (Barth, 2001; Danielson, 2006; Levenson, 2014). Whether the teacher leaders are formally assigned roles or whether they are self-motivated to lead, each of these examples represents a different model of teacher leader.

In Singapore, teaching has evolved over the past five decades. The system of teacher growth has been constructed in such a way that new teachers who have talent are tapped to advance in their careers as school administrators, master teachers, or curriculum specialists. This has created a distinct career ladder in the country, has transformed the teaching and learning in the school system, and has elevated teaching to a prestigious career path (Curtis, 2013). This differs greatly from the largely flat profession in traditional American teaching, and teacher leadership is one solution to shaping a career path (Schön, 1987). Teacher leaders, regardless of the specific tasks in which they engage, are teachers invested in furthering the development of the school (Parlar, Cansoy, Kilinç, 2017). Teacher leadership therefore not only arises from a growth culture within a school but also leads to a culture that expects teacher input and active participation.

Gigante and Firestone (2008) identify two different roles of teacher leaders. They divide the tasks of a teacher leader into support tasks and development tasks. The former is when teacher leaders work to improve initiatives in the school, and the latter is when teacher leaders facilitate the learning and development of their peers. While teacher leaders do both, it is more common for them to be in a supporting role and less common to be in the developing role (Gigante & Firestone, 2008). Although this research will focus on the school factors that support successful teacher leadership, one cannot explore the impact of those school factors on success until one considers what successful teacher leadership looks like in schools. Levenson's (2014) *Pathways to Teacher Leadership: Emerging Models, Changing Roles* highlights case studies of successful teacher leadership, underscoring the idea that very different types of work and activities may all be considered successful. For example, one teacher ran a mentoring program for new teachers. This teacher leader was engaged in the work of helping the individual mentors

think about their own teaching and how to teach the art of teaching to the new teachers. The

discussions they had were centered around the learning of the new teachers as well as the

learning of the students in each of these classrooms. Another group of teacher leaders proposed

a model for an alternative middle school in its district, and when its principal's position was cut

to part time, two teacher leaders from this group assumed leadership roles while still maintaining

their teaching load. Yet another teacher involved in learning communities beyond her school

decided to engage in action research in her classroom—identifying a question about teaching and

learning, collecting data, and then trying different pedagogical practices to address the problem

(Levenson, 2014). These different roles that teacher leaders play are influenced by the needs and

opportunities of the school environments.

Teacher Leader Success

When teacher leaders are successful in their roles, the collaborating teachers share

expertise with one another, experiment with new techniques and ideas, and initiate new projects

(Leithwood, Jantzi, Steinbach, 1999). Teacher leaders take it upon themselves to set up a culture

of "professional inquiry" that not only informs their teaching practice but also sets up the culture

for student learning, where students understand that their hard work and inquiry will lead to

school success (Danielson, 2006). Levenson adds that to be successful teacher leaders, teachers

must gain the skills needed to unite their adult colleagues to improve the teaching and learning at

their schools. Successful teacher leaders can ignite organizational change with the support of the

principal and the teaching staff, where "teachers can innovate within a system of mutual

accountability" (Levenson, 2014, p. 142). When these systems are working, teachers are

improving their practice and enhancing the learning of students.

School Factors that Contribute to Teacher Leader Success

As mentioned earlier, there appear to be five major factors that contribute to the success of teacher leaders in a school (Acker-Hocevar & Touchton, 1999; Barth, 2001; Danielson, 2006; Jackson et al., 2010). The factors are briefly restated and elaborated upon here and will be more fully explored in the following sections. The first factor, role definition, refers to the need for schools to create clearly defined roles for both teachers and administrators, where both parties have an open line of communication (Jackson et al., 2010; Leithwood et al., 2004; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Teachers need to know what parts of school life they can lead and what they must leave to the administration, and vice versa. They must feel comfortable discussing their roles and their decisions.

The second factor is trust. It is critical for teacher leaders to trust their administrators and for teachers to trust one another (Danielson, 2006; Jackson et al., 2010; Little, 1990). Teacher leaders must know that they are trusted members of the adult learning community and that the trust is reciprocal. The third necessary factor is creating an adult community within the faculty with a shared vision about teaching and learning (Danielson, 2006; Jackson et al., 2010; Little, 1990). Teachers and administrators must all be on the same page about what they want for their students and for their own learning in order to create a successful teacher leadership structure. Fourth, professional learning must be a welcome part of the school community, where teachers have an expectation that teachers are always learning (Danielson, 2006; Jackson et. al, 2010; Little, 1990). Finally, there must be time in the regular schedule for teacher leaders to learn, learn to lead, and actively lead their colleagues to learn (Jackson et al., 2010; Leblanc & Shelton, 1997). As these five factors have shown to be crucial in establishing and maintaining good teacher leaders, I explore each of them in depth in the pages that follow.

Factor 1: Role Definition and Communication

Research has demonstrated that for teacher leaders to be successful, there must be open lines of communication between teachers and school administrators (Leblanc & Shelton, 1997; Leithwood et al., 2004; Muijs & Harris, 2006; Nguyen & Hunter, 2018; Stoll, Bolam, McMahon, Wallace, Thomas, 2006; Szeto & Cheng, 2018). Leithwood et al. (2004) conducted a literature review analyzing studies on teacher leadership from 1988 through 2004. In their analysis of teacher and administrator communication, they found that when administrators have an open line of communication with teachers, schools gain teacher compliance, build loyalty, and enhance job satisfaction, morale, and self-efficacy, and this all, in turn, reduces teacher alienation and burnout (Leithwood et al., 2004).

In 2018, Nguyen and Hunter analyzed interviews from 200 teachers, teacher leaders, and administrators who were part of a bigger project, where teacher leaders led school reform initiatives in three large high schools in Texas serving 80,000 students. These teacher leaders had led reform initiatives in their schools with the help and support of administrators. They found that the support of administrators was crucial to the success of the initiatives but that the perception of the role of the administrator varied widely among the teachers (Nguyen & Hunter, 2018). Even if the participating teachers did not observe the administrator's support firsthand, teacher leaders knew which administrators were supportive of their work and reported that it was imperative to the success of their leadership initiatives. Leithwood et al.'s research underscores the importance of teacher and administrator communication, and Nguyen and Hunter's research adds that without administrative support, teacher leaders will not be successful in leading their colleagues. Open communication as well as administrative support are key elements to successful teacher leadership.

When teachers and leaders communicate openly, and when teachers are included in conversations pertaining to school-wide decisions, the entire school community shows positive improvement (Muijs & Harris, 2006). Similar to Leithwood et al.'s findings, Muijs and Harris's study of teacher leaders in the UK revealed that some administrators supported teacher leaders and some did not. Teacher leaders with supportive administrators were able to lead successful initiatives; those that did not were not as successful. The structure in which teacher leaders are empowered to take on leadership tasks is generally referred to as distributed leadership, as opposed to autocratic leadership, where one or only a few leaders have power in a school. Distribution of leadership creates a structure in which teachers and administrators learn from one another and share their perspectives before a decision is made. It allows for increased participation, and therefore a greater commitment to the final strategy (Leithwood et al., 2004). Building this type of collaborative relationship with principals and colleagues contributes to the effectiveness of teacher leadership (Leblanc & Shelton, 1997; Stoll, 2006). Administrators are not only key to the maintenance of the success of teacher leadership; they also play a crucial role in the naming and development of teacher leaders. In traditional hierarchical leadership, the roles of administrator and teacher are very clear—administrators lead, and teachers do what they are told. In distributed leadership, when the roles are blurred, the opportunities for teachers to take on leadership roles open up.

In 2018, Szeto and Cheng conducted a study to explore the role of the principal in developing teacher leaders. They performed an extensive analysis on the relationship between 20 teachers and their principals and asked the teachers to report about their interactions. Szeto and Cheng broke down the content of principal–teacher leader conversation into five main categories: vision sharing, instructional support, curriculum development, administrative matters,

and informational updates. The most frequent interactions for the teachers and their principals were administrative matters and informational updates, followed by curriculum development and instructional support, and, lastly, vision-sharing. The variety and frequency of these interactions show that the principal–teacher interaction can help shape the roles that teacher leaders will play in decision-making. In combination with the frequency of these interactions, the study alluded to the fact that principal-teacher interaction, whether direct or indirect, was crucial in establishing and nurturing teacher leadership (Szeto & Cheng, 2018). The small scale of the study did not allow the authors to realize trends in the type of relationship established between the principal and teachers. It did, however, allow them to see the influence of these principals in a small sample from which they can extrapolate.

Muijs and Harris (2006) found a very different type of teacher-administrator relationship in their study of teacher leaders in 10 schools in the UK. Some senior managers were not willing to relinquish control to the teacher leaders. These administrators, many of whom were not good communicators or were not themselves strong leaders, were significant obstacles to teacher leaders' success in their schools (Muijs & Harris, 2006). Barth (2001) writes about the general influence of the principal on teacher leadership and vice versa. He argues that the principal's role is vitally important to the success of a teacher leader. He notes that teachers may decide to take on leadership tasks independently, but without the support of the principal, they will not be successful. Conversely, a principal has the ability to empower her teachers to grow into leadership roles (Barth, 2001). Whether the agency for assuming leadership lies in the teacher himself, the situation, or the administration, an administrator can empower teacher leaders to lead or can take away from a teacher's ability to do so. Smylie et al. (2007) add that principals

contribute to social capital among teachers in general, all the more so when teacher leaders are leading learning initiatives for their peers.

School administrators have developed various models to allow teacher leaders to take on leadership roles. Acker-Hocevar and Touchton (1999) conducted a study that interviewed six Florida "teachers of the year." They asked the teachers about the power relationships within the school and about their own power within the school community. The study concluded that the teachers who exerted the most agency in their leadership were reported to have the most empowering principals and the most supportive working environments. Teacher leaders reported that their administrators contributed or detracted from their success in leadership (Acker-Hocevar & Touchton, 1999). It is not enough for an administrator to appoint a teacher as a teacher leader; teacher leaders need their administrators to empower them, raise their social capital, and allow them space to lead.

York-Barr and Duke (2004) claim that principals are more ready to support teacher leaders in theory than in practice and attribute this to the messiness of the domains of teacher and principal leadership. In the traditional roles of teacher and administrator, teachers do not have any responsibility beyond their own classrooms. In the model of teacher leadership, teachers have a role to play in the greater school, which conflicts with the dominating paradigm where teachers do not have responsibility outside of their own classrooms. York-Barr and Duke found in their literature review that although principals indicated that they wanted teachers to lead, teachers reported that their principals were not as likely to allow them the authority they needed to take on leadership roles if it meant that the principals must relinquish some of their authority. While principals believed in distributive leadership, they were not always willing to give away their own power to teachers to make this model a reality.

Perhaps the particular role a teacher leader assumes has an impact on how administrators shape their own roles. As mentioned earlier, Gigante and Firestone (2008) distinguished teacher leaders in support versus development roles. They found that the teacher leaders who functioned mostly in the support tasks felt unsupported by their building administrators, but administrators who worked with teacher leaders who were supporting and developing teachers were more in tune with the teacher leaders' work and were much more supportive (Gigante & Firestone, 2008). Similar to the teachers in York-Barr and Duke's findings, teachers who were given the most meaningful leadership tasks were also given the most autonomy and support. The teachers who were not given autonomy or leadership authority felt the least amount of support.

Nguyen and Hunter (2018) add that administrators can give legitimacy to teacher leaders, but ultimately, the participating teachers' acceptance of the teacher leaders depended on their perception that the teacher leaders were listening to their feedback and supporting their efforts and that they had themselves mastered the innovations being asked of the teachers. As mentioned above, Smylie et al. (2007) found that administrators were able to give teacher leaders social capital with their peers to help build the role of teacher leader. While administrators have the authority and social clout to empower teacher leaders to thrive, teacher leaders also need the support of their peers in order to lead, which is demonstrated through self-mastery, reciprocal support, and open communication.

Teacher leaders and their success are not only influenced by their principals; they, in turn, influence principals (Crowther, Ferguson, Hann, Hargreaves, 2008; Zhang & Henderson, 2018). Although school reform literature has suggested that principals must be instructional leaders (Camburn, Rowan, Taylor, 2003), Wahlstrom and Louis (2008) found in their analysis of 4,165 teacher surveys from schools throughout the United States that the effects of principal leadership

on instructional practices are relatively weak. This study supports the work of Price (2012) and

Wahlstorm and Louis (2008), who found that a principal's influence on culture is much stronger

than her influence on teaching and learning. Wahlstrom and Louis (2008) suggest that schools

would benefit from the addition of shared leadership with a level of trust, to help teachers with

the areas of instruction where principals are not so influential—most notably Standard

Contemporary Practice and Flexible Grouping models. Allowing teacher leaders to lead the

conversations that affect teaching and learning allows a more collaborative culture for teachers in

a school, and these studies suggest that it is more effective than principal leadership. As

Cranston (2011) contended, it is the role of the principal to build a culture of trust so that teacher

leaders can lead their peers to learn more about their practice. The culture of trust is itself a

critical element to the success of a teacher leader and will be addressed in a later section. Other

studies do stress the important role of the principal in teaching instruction, but they also stress

the importance of a collaborative culture for teachers and administrators.

In a study to determine how principals and teaching communities influence teaching and

learning, Supovitz Sirinides, May (2010) analyzed student data and teacher and principal

questionnaires from a midsized urban school district in the Southeast United States. They found

that not only do principals influence student performance, but also that teachers influence one

another when they engage in conversation about teaching and learning (Supovitz et al., 2010).

This stands in contrast to the findings of Camburn et al. (2003), Wahlstrom and Louis (2008),

and Wahlstrom (2012), who found that the principal does not have a strong influence on teaching

and learning. All of these studies do agree that teachers and teacher leaders influence one

another in significant ways. The studies also show that a clear line of open communication leads

to new attempts at improving instruction, which leads to better teaching (Berebitsky, Goddard,

Carlisle, 2014; Supovitz et al., 2010). Without a community of trust, teachers and administrators would not be able to openly engage in these conversations.

While the preceding studies analyze the role of administrators in helping to support teacher leaders, the relationship between teacher leaders and their peers, and administrator and teacher leader collaboration and communication, there are some missing details that would enhance the conversation. There is no central agreement about what constitutes "communication." Some studies define communication in the form of formal meetings (Berebitsky et al., 2014; Struyve, Meredith, Gielen, 2014; Supovitz et al., 2010), while others do not define the parameters of communication. Beyond issues of definition, it is challenging to capture all communication between administrators and teacher leaders, as it is likely that at least some of it occurs informally.

The other factor that might vary from study to study is the definition and measurement of administrative support of teacher leaders. What is considered support by some may not be considered support by others. This makes it difficult to compare studies that analyze principal support of teacher leaders. Similarly, within a study, it is difficult to compare different teacher leaders because each one of them may have a different interpretation of an interview question about support. Establishing agreed-upon definitions and measurement tools to assess both communication structures and administrative support would be necessary to truly understand the nature of how these factors impact the outcome of teacher leaders. Even without absolute clarity of definitions, the evidence seems to suggest that some form of communication about roles and administrative support are critical components of success for teacher leaders.

Jewish day schools face a unique set of conditions with regard to role definitions and communication. The teachers and administrators are often members of the same cultural and

religious institutions, synagogues, and communities (Schick, 2014). Teachers and administrators are often parents in the school, and in some older schools, alumni may return to teach and lead. Pomson and Schnoor (2008) conducted a study on the relationships that parents have with their children's Jewish day schools. They noticed that schools became a place of importance for the parents, a place of connection for them along with their children. Such parent involvement, when there may be several people serving multiple roles (i.e., parent and employee), might influence communication in the community of adults in a Jewish day school. In another book by Pomson and Deitcher (2009), a school leader, Kohn, wrote about the process of choosing a curriculum for Judaic studies in his high school. He described the school's process of deciding what to teach and the community stakeholders that ultimately were involved in the decision-making, from board members to students, outside consultants, teachers, and administrators. This dynamic of multiple stakeholders, many of whom travel together in social, cultural, and religious circles outside the school, may be vastly different than the experience in general education. Yet another factor that might contribute to the different adult dynamic in Jewish day schools is illustrated in a later chapter in Deitcher and Pomson's book. That chapter is dedicated to the concept of the *Shaliach,* teachers who come from Israel to teach alongside local teachers for a specified and limited number of years. Pomson explored the roles of *shlichim* (plural of *shaliach)* in the former Soviet Union and their interactions with the local teachers—their colleagues. There was minimal social interaction between the *shlichim* and local teachers; the *shlichim* were seen as the authority on Israel and Judaic studies even if their background, knowledge, or teacher preparation was limited. Simply by having been a product of the Israeli school system, these teachers were seen by their colleagues as Jewish authorities (Pomson &

Deitcher, 2009). For all the reasons discussed above, the ways in which roles and communication impact teacher leaders in Jewish day schools should be explored.

Factor 2: Trust

Trust is a key element, fanning out in multiple directions to support teacher leaders. Teacher leaders need to be in an environment where they trust both their administrators and their colleagues (Alegado, 2018; Barth, 2001; Cranston, 2017; Harris, 2003; Jackson et al., 2010; Leis Rimm-Kaufman, Paxton, Sandilos, 2017). Alegado (2018) adds that teacher leadership can develop only if principals are willing to relinquish some of their power to teacher leaders, which is certainly not likely to be done without a context of trusting relationships (Alegado, 2018). The trust must expand to include all adults in the school community to ensure that they are able to work together to advance the culture of learning (Barth, 2001; Cranston, 2017). Finally, teacher leaders themselves need to be trusted by their administrators to lead and by their colleagues, other teachers, who need to be open to their peer-leadership.

Trust can be defined as multiple social exchanges based on respect, personal regard, competence, and personal integrity between members of one group, such as teachers, and members of another, such as administrators (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Leis et al., 2017). Many studies explore building communities of adult learning in schools (Barth, 1990; Bryck & Schneider, 2002; Cranston, 2011; Leis et al., 2017; Strahan, 2003; Troen & Boles, 1994), and a key focus of these studies is the culture of trust that is created among the adults in the community. Leis et al. (2017) suggest that relational trust comprises three parts: interpersonal relationships, shared expectations, and a dedication to improving the school. Creating trust among adults in a school community is an ongoing process that comprises many repeated

interactions, since the communal process of educating children extends beyond a single year or a single classroom.

With specific regard to teacher trust within a teaching community, Bryk and Schneider (2002) explain that teachers rely on the trust of one another for the most basic reasons and procedures. If one teacher doesn't prepare his students properly for the next grade level, then the subsequent teacher might be seen as a failure when the students fail to achieve a certain skill. If a teacher has to attend a meeting during lunch, she might rely on a colleague to cover her lunch duty. On a deeper level, teachers rely on their colleagues to share a common set of beliefs about teaching and learning, and to similarly value their roles and respect the magnitude of their work (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). This type of trust is critical to all schools, and an added layer of trust is necessary for teacher leadership to thrive. Harris (2003) emphasizes that when leadership is distributed and more teachers are entrusted with information and responsibilities, then each teacher has a larger stake in the success of the school. This is essential to the concept of teacher leadership (Harris, 2003). In this framework of distributive leadership, each teacher is an invested member of the community, relying on and supporting his colleagues for personal and communal success. If one teacher fails to do his/her job, then the system falls apart. This community is hard to establish in a school where teachers have little to no interaction with one another. As explained, to have relational trust, teachers must have meaningful interactions with one another over time to establish these relationships and norms. The extensive research on teacher communication and its impact is beyond the scope of this study, but in a recent survey of 1,500 elementary school teachers in America, communicating and collaborating with their peers were reported as vitally important parts of their work (Tichenor & Tichenor, 2019).

Smylie et al. (2007) conducted a three-year longitudinal comparative case study of six diverse secondary schools in two mid-Atlantic states. Each of these schools was involved in a grant-funded distributive leadership initiative with an appointed coach. While this study did not name the teachers involved in the distributive leadership model as teacher leaders, their roles and responsibilities fit the model of teacher leadership that I have been using in this discussion. The research focused on the role that trust played in the distributive leadership model. Using an adapted form of Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model (JCM) to fit distributive leadership in a school organizational context, the study added five variables: structural organization, school culture, micropolitics, trust, and stability of teachers and leadership. The study looked for evidence of trust in direct expression as well as trust manifested through actions using thematic analysis of the case study data. Although many factors contributed to distributive leadership development, trust was found to be paramount. Trust not only helped to shape the model for distributive leadership, but it also enhanced the application of distributive leadership in daily actions. Teachers were not only empowered to lead their colleagues because they were trusted to do so, but the trust also allowed colleagues to acknowledge their authority. Trust allowed one of the schools in the study to transform from a model where the principal was consulted on every decision to a school where teams of teachers managed many tasks and initiatives, such as scheduling, facilitating faculty meetings, preparing for standardized tests, and designing and offering student orientation and mentoring programs (Smylie et al., 2007). Over the course of three years, the principal slowly engaged more teachers in leadership roles, allowing them autonomy to make and revise decisions that would shape the way the students and teachers learned. This study demonstrated that trust was an essential component that empowered the teacher leaders to begin new learning initiatives in their schools.

The principal trusted his teachers to know what they needed as learners and what their students needed to improve their school experience.

Similarly, Bryk and Schneider (2003) conducted a decade-long study in 400 Chicago elementary schools. Over the course of their research, they noticed similar themes in their field notes, interviews, and surveys and realized that many of the theories of relational trust were represented in their data. They then used notes from three of the original schools in their study and categorized the data based on the theories of relational trust to better understand the trust within the schools. The research originally focused on the reform efforts of the schools, and through this subsequent analysis, Bryk and Schneider were able to identify relational trust as a key area for making change. They found that schools that had strong communities of relational trust had more successful initiatives to reform some aspect of learning in the school. Bryk and Schneider attributed this to the fact that trust reduced the risk associated with change. Teachers who felt safe were more willing to take new risks in their teaching (Bryk & Schneider, 2003). Both Bryk and Schneider's (2003) and Smylie et al.'s (2007) research agree that although there is a high sense of risk associated with beginning a new learning initiative, when teachers and administrators trust one another, the new learning initiatives have more successful beginnings.

One of the questions that still remains is whether a trusting community is necessary once teacher leadership initiatives are well established. Muijs and Harris (2006) studied teacher leaders at 10 elementary and secondary schools in the United Kingdom from varied socioeconomic backgrounds. They selected schools that had already participated in some form of teacher leadership initiative prior to their study, which aimed to discover how teacher leaders affect the school and how the school environment affects teacher leaders. Using a qualitative case study approach, with semi-structured interviews from a diagonal cross-section of staff and a

collection of school documents such as school inspection reports and developmental plans, the researchers were able to look at the ways that teachers, teacher leaders, administrators, and students interacted in the schools. They found that teachers needed to have a high level of trust in order to lead new initiatives, and that schools that did not have collegiality within the faculty had a great reduction in teacher leadership over the course of the study. Unlike Bryk and Schneider (2003) and Smylie et al. (2007), who studied teacher leadership initiatives that were just beginning, this study looked at existing initiatives. Its finding suggests that it is not only imperative to establish a foundation of trust but also that the maintenance of that trust is key to the overall success of teacher learning. Trust is a key component to a collegial environment, which is, in turn, a necessary condition for teacher leadership to thrive (Barth, 2001; Jackson et al., 2010; Nguyen & Hunter, 2018).

Confirming the necessity of the initial and ongoing role of trust, Tschannen-Moran (2014) describes trust as both a glue and a lubricant. Trust binds people together as a team to make things happen, and it facilitates movement to push a team or an initiative further (Tschannen-Moran, 2014). In a study of Michigan reading teachers in kindergarten through third grade, Berebitsky et al. (2014) investigated 1,738 reading teachers in 165 schools. They administered three surveys throughout the school year to study the teachers' perception of principal support in correlation with teachers' perception of collaboration and communication around literacy instruction. They found that if teachers feel that their principals are supportive of change, they in turn have a greater level of communication and collaboration with their administrators (Berebitsky et al., 2014). While this study doesn't directly measure trust, what it shows is that principals who show their teachers that they support instructional change will get more honesty from the teachers about the changes that would improve instruction. When

teachers trust their principals, they are more open to sharing what needs to happen in their classrooms to improve instruction.

Although Berebitsky et al. did not directly ask the teachers and principals about trust, their findings are consistent with studies that ask teachers and administrators about the importance of trust in their change initiatives. Cranston (2017) conducted a study in 12 schools in Manitoba, Canada, where he interviewed principals and teachers about creating professional learning communities. The teachers and principals in all of these schools stressed that trust was key to building cooperative learning communities and that their administrator was the catalyst in establishing a climate of trust (Cranston, 2017).

Teachers not only need the trust of their principals but also the trust of their colleagues. Creating a shared vision may be an important component in creating a trusting environment. As Roland Barth pointed out, oftentimes the biggest impediment to a teacher leader's success is other teachers (Barth, 2006; Leblanc & Shelton, 1997). While it is true that all teachers want their students to succeed, there are many times when teachers disagree about how to make that happen. Sometimes this leads to teachers going in their "own directions," which is not helpful for the long-term success of students or the building of a community with a shared vision (Berg, 2018). Teachers, teacher leaders, and administrators need to establish a common definition of student success to be able to work together toward that goal. Berg further explains that having a shared vision gives all members of the group a shared purpose and allows each of the members a bond of "moral purpose" (2018). Once the teachers in a learning community have a shared vision, they open the possibility for working together to achieve their common goal, and as Supovitz et al. (2010) discovered, they will be more willing to openly communicate their strategies to one another.

Just as teacher leaders need a community of trust with their principals and colleagues, they also need to trust themselves. Berg (2018) recognizes that trust is crucial to the success of teacher leaders; trust fuels engagement, drives productivity, and enables inspiration. Teacher leaders need to gain the trust of their colleagues and principals to successfully lead their colleagues, and teachers must also have a trusting community in which they themselves can learn. Nicholson, Capitelli, Richert, Wilson, Bove, (2017) studied a large urban California school district shortly after the enactment of the No Child Left Behind act caused major changes in the schools. The district began to rely heavily on teacher leaders to lead their colleagues in meeting the educational demands of the new mandate. Throughout the study, teacher leaders were indeed empowered to lead their colleagues, but the research also found that teachers needed to learn to trust their own expertise and professional judgment to move the teaching initiatives further (Nicholson et al., 2017). Interpersonal as well as intrapersonal trust is crucial to the development of teacher leadership and teacher learning.

The research reviewed above supports the notion that teachers need to experience the school community as one of trust and collaboration in order to open their practice to their colleagues. Smylie and Hart (1999) point out that these same conditions of trust and collaboration might hinder teachers from taking risks or innovating if they become too comfortable with the status quo. Despite the seemingly consistent findings regarding the importance of trust between teachers, their peers, and administrators, considerably more research is needed for a number of reasons. Many of these studies were on a small scale, and therefore larger implications can only be implied. It is also difficult to isolate the role that trust plays in a school community, given the complexity of school environments. The way that different researchers assessed and labeled trust might also affect the findings. While it seems reasonable

to assume that trust plays a vital role in teacher leadership, more careful exploration of how the educational community best measures trust and how it impacts the teacher leader and broader school community is necessary.

The Jewish day school community also faces unique issues with trust. As I mentioned above when discussing the clarity of roles that teachers, parents, and administrators play in the sometimes-insular Jewish day school communities, these different roles can also lead to confusion about trust. In a 2017 dissertation about trust between supervisors and teachers in Jewish day schools, Joel (2017) explored teachers' perceptions of their supervisors' actions and related them to the level of trust that the teachers had for their supervisors. He found that in Jewish day schools, teachers' perception of the behavioral integrity of their supervisors and their level of trust was directly related to teachers' job satisfaction (Joel, 2017). In another study of 329 teachers in Jewish day schools, 80% of teachers reported that they could count on their administrators to let them do a good job, and 64% felt that their administrations supported and valued their work, but only 55% of these same teachers said that their administrators were effective (Tamir et al., 2017). Trust between teachers and supervisors in Jewish day schools might be more complex than in public schools because of the interpersonal play between supervisors and teachers as well as the job satisfaction and motivation for teachers to teach. I turn now to consider that broader community in schools, and particularly how the adult learning community in the school impacts teacher leadership.

Factor 3: Adult Learning Community

This section will explore the third major factor that contributes to the success of teacher leadership: research on adult learning communities in schools. Before doing so, a brief overview of adult learning communities is in order. Teachers need to enhance their own pedagogical

knowledge over time, and teachers learn new pedagogy from their peers and others in

professional learning communities. In schools where teachers form effective learning

communities with trusting relationships, their teaching is even more innovative and impactful

(Parlar et al., 2017). Of course, the main goal of teaching is student learning, which is impacted

positively when teachers are engaged in professional learning communities (Borko, 2004;

Goddard, Goddard, Kim, Miller, 2015; Parlar et al., 2017). In order to engage in this process of

collaborative learning, teachers must first establish a common goal and measurable outcomes for

their communal learning (Horn & Little, 2010). Equally essential is their willingness to

communicate openly and effectively with each other (Leblanc & Shelton, 1997). Teacher

leaders can and should surely play a role in facilitating such adult learning; however, despite the

clear benefits of adult communities, some teacher leaders feel uncomfortable leading their peers

in professional learning for fear of jeopardizing their relationships with peers (Leblanc &

Shelton, 1997; Struyve et al., 2014).

　　　　A supportive school context, one which fosters a spirit of collaboration, will be critical in

creating an adult learning community. A corollary of such a supportive school context is the

ability to foster a spirit of collaboration. Teachers work largely independently, the only adult in

their workspace for hours at a time, and they may not easily assume collaborative roles. Horn

and Little (2010) analyzed two groups of teachers discussing problems of practice to uncover

what factors fostered collaboration. They concluded that shared dispositions were necessary for

collaboration to occur, but that this might not be sufficient to lead to shared learning (where

teachers can learn together as part of a professional learning community [PLC]). Horn and

Little's (2010) research found that teachers need common focus and goals in order to sustain

productive learning communities. Many others have agreed that shared vision is what allows

sustained adult learning to be impactful (Borko, 2004; Ronfelt et al., 2015; Wahlstrom & Louis, 2008).

How is such a shared vision accomplished, and who is responsible? Certainly, effective, collaborative adult learning can only be facilitated if there is someone who "owns" the learning (Wasley, 1992). Teachers can (and do) learn on their own through different professional development trainings, but the communal learning that takes place in schools needs a facilitator to organize it, both logistically and on a curricular level.

The relationship among and between teachers has a significant impact on whether and how teacher leaders assume facilitation of PLCs or other types of adult learning. One of the challenges can be the group dynamics among teacher participants (Sjoer & Meirink, 2016; Stoll et al., 2006). Developing group norms and a shared understanding of what the group should look like is crucial to maintaining a community (Sjoer & Meirink, 2016). Teachers who participate in learning communities need to have a unified commitment to the goal, be loyal to the team, and also recognize individual differences and the need for unity (Stoll et al., 2006). In addition to the shared vision for learning, as previously discussed, teachers need to be able to recognize their differences and might need to make small personal sacrifices in the name of unity and communal learning.

Wallace (2001) conducted a study of 300 primary schools in England that had established professional learning communities. Each school had head teachers empowered to work with classroom teachers and the responsibility to report to their school leadership teams about the PLCs. The teachers and head teachers in these teacher learning communities found an inherent tension between the head teachers' mandate to lead teacher learning and the responsibility to report to the leadership team. When the teachers felt that their learning would be reported to

their supervisors, they were not as willing to take risks that might enhance their learning, similar to Wallace's (2001) observation. This is consistent with the views of Spillane et al. (2004), who assert that leadership practice exists in a delicate balance among leader, situation, and follower, where each contributes to the success of the others. The tension between accountability to the administration and loyalty to the team of learners creates a conflict for teacher leaders.

It would seem that collaboration, especially a collaborative stance on the part of the teacher leader, is critical in forming a learning community with one's peers. A study of 140 teachers in a North Georgia school district exploring the contrast between teacher leaders' stated roles and actual behaviors found a discrepancy between what the teacher leaders perceived their roles to be and how effective their peers thought they performed (Kelley, 2008). The large discrepancies between items such as "understands how to guide colleagues in improving instruction" or "works collaboratively with peers" indicated that teachers were not always satisfied with the level of collaboration from their teacher leaders. While the reports of colleagues may not adequately represent the full situation, this lack of experiencing collaboration is certainly troubling.

Assuming a collaborative leadership role among one's peers is challenging and may cause some teachers to avoid the role of teacher leader for fear of damaging their relationships with their peers. On a positive note, teacher leaders in the Flemish school system reported that they interact more with their peers as teacher leaders than they did when they were classroom teachers, and that the content of their conversations has greatly diversified as they have shifted to this new role. They generally reported that this improved their satisfaction and their own teaching practice. Despite these positive findings, these same teacher leaders also felt that they were putting their social-professional relationships at risk (Struyve et al., 2014). In a similar

study, Leblanc and Shelton (1997) interviewed teachers and teacher leaders to discover their

perceptions of teacher leadership. They discovered that teacher leaders felt conflicted between

being part of their peer group and leading other teachers. Teacher leaders did not want to be

seen as administrators and did not want to appear to be forcing their colleagues to implement

something new. When teacher job satisfaction was higher, and teachers collaborated as part of

their learning communities, then the conflict was alleviated (Leblanc & Shelton, 1997). As

opposed to the Flemish teachers who were worried about the way their peers would perceive

them in general, these teacher leaders were afraid of the perceived conflict that could occur as a

result of leading others to change in a tense environment.

Research validates teacher leaders' worries about peers' perceptions of them. In the same

study that attempted to understand how Flemish teacher leaders saw themselves in their roles, the

teacher leaders reported that although they sometimes struggled to obtain the support or

cooperation of their colleagues, they all had the explicit support of their school leaders (Struyve

et al., 2014). School leadership support, however, cannot fully ameliorate concerns about peer

relationships. In a 2016 study of three school districts near a U.S. university, Angelle (2016)

analyzed four models of teacher leadership to better understand what makes teacher leadership

effective. Principals' roles contributed to the understanding of teacher leadership in schools, and

teachers understood teacher leadership as being empowered by the principal to lead as well as

sharing expertise, sharing leadership, and serving as a supra-practitioner (Angelle, 2016).

Despite how powerful these influences of the principal were, they did not necessarily have

influence over other teachers' reactions. Teachers acknowledged that their principals could

appoint teacher leaders, but this did not correlate with their cooperation in the teacher leadership

initiatives. Similarly, Taylor et al. (2019) conducted a two-year study of fellows from five local

school districts involved in a teacher leadership development program at a Northeastern public state university. The study examined the relationship between the teacher leaders and their peers. They found that the teacher leaders' participation in the university program could not make an impact on the teacher leaders' success unless the school administration actively supported the teacher leaders from within. Teacher leadership, similarly, was ineffective unless the leaders placed an emphasis on the interaction of their colleagues (Taylor et al., 2019). Principals cannot merely appoint a teacher leader to make change, and a teacher leader cannot merely begin a change initiative. Ongoing support and community building are crucial to the success of a teacher leader. If teachers feel that they are being led by an outsider or that their learning community is not truly a community, then the leadership initiatives are less likely to be successful.

Barth (2001) elucidates the many obstacles to teacher leaders. He stresses that many teacher leaders report that one of the biggest impediments to their success is their own colleagues. Teachers who are not willing to be led by teacher leaders can thwart any initiatives that a teacher leader might try to bring. In the following section, I will look further into teacher leader development and professional learning to help teacher leaders succeed.

Teacher Learning and Student Outcomes. In 2000, Langer explored the relationship between the professional learning of English teachers and their students' success. She conducted a five-year study in four states at 44 different middle and high schools that needed to improve student achievement on standardized tests. The schools that were most successful, where students performed better than their peers in similarly positioned socioeconomic schools, had six common findings. In such successful schools, teachers worked together to improve student achievement, participated in their own professional learning communities, participated in

improvement activities that gave them a sense of agency, valued teaching as a profession, had a

caring attitude towards their colleagues and students, and fostered a respect for life-long learning

(Langer, 2000). Similarly, Goddard et al. (2015) conducted a study evaluating student

achievement when teachers collaborate. They found that when teachers in the Balanced

Leadership Program at 93 high-poverty rural elementary schools in a Midwestern state learned

together in collaborative study groups, their teaching improved and, in turn, so did student

achievement (Goddard et al., 2015).

Using a similar argument to that of Langer and Goddard et al., Borko (2004) argued that

for teachers to create a community of learners for their students, they must be part of a

community of learners themselves. Studying the terrain of different professional development

programs to explore effective teacher learning, Borko documented the importance of teachers

learning some content or skill together and engaging in challenging conversations about teaching

and learning. This process is time consuming, but ultimately, Borko (2004) found, when

teachers learn together collaboratively and have difficult conversations, they learn the most.

Teachers who are in supportive and collaborative environments are held accountable by their

peers to perform better (Parlar et al., 2017). It is therefore reasonable to conclude that teachers

who are themselves part of a learning community, particularly one that is helping them gain new

content or a new skill, are pushed by their peers to improve the level of their instruction.

Borko's study of professional development programs suggests that the content of the

learning community matters. Ronfelt et al. (2015), interested in the idea that the content of

teacher learning matters, sought to better understand the process of professional learning and

whether specific types of collaboration affected student achievement. Their study considered the

quality of collaboration in instructional teams to determine whether certain types of collaboration

were more effective in promoting student achievement and to consider school and teacher characteristics that might suggest a causal relationship between collaboration of teachers and student achievement. They found that teachers and schools that have better teacher collaboration also have better student achievement, most often in reading and math instruction. In addition, almost any collaboration seemed impactful, with the authors concluding that "naturally occurring collaboration—taking various forms and serving various functions within and across schools— also promotes student achievement" (Ronfelt et al., 2015, p. 508). Teacher collaboration can take many forms. It is reasonable to assume that if "naturally occurring collaboration" enhances student learning, then intentional teacher learning will as well.

Do these findings confirm that teacher learning will inherently improve student learning, as long as teachers are working together to improve their practice? Hallinger and Heck (2010) discovered that outcome was dependent on the school context. Teachers can learn together and have a common goal, but without supportive leadership and a trusting environment, such teacher learning will not translate into student success. In their longitudinal study of 192 elementary schools over four years, Hallinger and Heck examined how collaborative leadership affects school improvement and student reading achievement. They found that collaborative teacher learning does indeed positively impact student learning, particularly in reading and math, but only when the leaders in the school are also collaborative. The relationship between leadership and adult learning was bidirectional; the leaders' impact on the school was dependent on the adults being willing to learn and vice versa (Hallinger & Heck, 2010). Without a supporting community of adult learners in the school, leaders were not able to be successful influencers, and without supportive leadership, teachers were not able to enact new learning initiatives that they wanted to try, and therefore their learning was not impactful on their teaching practice.

I have discussed that teacher leaders have more success in creating learning communities when teachers are satisfied in their work (Leblanc & Shelton, 1997). Tamir and Lesik's (2013) study of Jewish day school teacher engagement included exploring job satisfaction and working conditions using secondary analysis from two different studies that, combined, looked at 629 teachers in various Jewish day schools of different sizes and from different denominations around America. They discovered that there were "poor working conditions" in many Jewish day schools, as defined by limited respect from various stakeholders, large class size, poor career advancement, and weak administrative support (Tamir & Lesik, 2013). They added that teacher retention in Jewish day schools largely depended on either a teacher's self-motivation to remain (to educate Jewish children, contribute to the Jewish community) or the support and respect that they received from the school (administrative support, teacher camaraderie, or professional growth) (Tamir & Lesik, 2013). It is clear from these findings that professional and personal growth is essential to keeping Jewish day school teachers motivated, but Tamir and Lesik state that despite this need, Jewish day schools are not always able to offer their teachers the professional development that they need to improve their practice. This will be further explored in the next section on professional learning.

Tamir and Lesik (2013) also identified four distinct profiles of Jewish day school teachers: very engaged (mission-driven), disengaged or unsupported (not motivated to stay in the field long term), well-supported, and very engaged and unsupported (mission-driven to continue teaching but not supported in their work). Within these four profiles, it would seem that the teachers who are mission-driven and those that are well-supported are ripe to lead as teacher leaders or be led by teacher leaders. Teachers who are motivated by a mission would be satisfied in their work, knowing that they are impacting their communities positively and educating

Jewish children. These teachers that are well-supported have active professional growth profiles that could already have teacher leadership initiatives as key elements. In considering whether, despite the challenges, there might be a subset of teachers in Jewish day schools appropriate for and interested in teacher leadership, Tamir and Lesik's profiles of teachers may be useful.

These profiles might have particular relevance since, while school leaders may struggle to find qualified candidates, there are Jewish day school teachers who are motivated to work in their schools. Tamir and Lesik (2013) conducted a study of teacher career engagement with 629 teachers in Jewish day schools to understand the factors that keep Jewish day school teachers in schools. They concluded that teachers who do stay in Jewish schools express a greater commitment to teaching about Judaism, and a personal commitment to Judaism in general. Teachers also reported that in order to stay in their schools, they needed to be supported by their school and have access to meaningful professional development (Tamir & Lesick, 2013). These teachers are driven to teach in Jewish schools because the schools' missions align with their own beliefs about the importance of Judaism and because they want to continue to enhance their own quality of teaching. It therefore would be reasonable to assume that Jewish day school teachers who are mission-driven in their work would want to expand their professional skills to include leadership skills in a similar manner to their public-school counterparts, who are also mission-driven to teach while simultaneously leading (Langer, 2000; Markow et al., 2013; Parlar et al., 2017). A study of the motivation for teacher leadership in Jewish day schools would be useful but is not the purpose of the current study. I therefore consider the culture and climate of Jewish day schools, as they may impact the success of teacher leadership initiatives.

The section above considered the teacher learning community and cited the PLC literature as well as research on teacher leaders. While professional learning communities and

teacher leadership initiatives are not 100% transferable, the group dynamics of the adult

community are very similar, and the studies conducted on professional learning communities

may be applicable to the communities of learners in teacher leadership initiatives (Danielson,

2006; Wasley, 1992). It would strengthen the field if similar studies were conducted about

teacher leaders involved in teacher leadership initiatives. I have considered the roles,

responsibilities, and challenges of teacher leaders. I now turn the reader's attention to how

teacher leaders are prepared and what particular learning around leadership is offered them.

Factor 4: Teacher Leader Preparation and Professional Learning

In the previous section, I discussed how teacher leaders as part of an adult learning

community learn together with their peers as a cohesive group. How do teacher leaders learn the

skills they need to lead? Teacher leaders come to their role in myriad ways, as presented above.

They can enter the field of teacher leadership because a principal has empowered them to do so,

because they have a strong internal desire, or because the situation demands a leader and they

were there. While there are personal characteristics that help teacher leaders be effective leaders

(Jackson et al., 2010), teacher leaders also need to learn how to lead (Hull, Scott, & Higgs, 2014;

McGregor, 2011; Rogers, 2014a; Stump, 2013). A new skill can be learned in one of three

distinct ways: formally, non-formally, or informally. Formal learning usually occurs in a

classroom, and for teacher leadership, this type of learning is usually in a university degree-

offering setting. Non-formal learning, while not a formally structured certificate/degree

program, is still an intentional learning experience, often achieved through private coaching or

commercial training agencies. These non-formal experiences frequently include an internship

component that makes use of on-the-job training. Informal learning is generally unplanned

learning, learning that happens by chance and through experience (Rogers, 2014a). Formal,

nonformal, and informal learning experiences do not always occur in isolation from one another; often, formal learning experiences incorporate non-formal components, and teachers are constantly learning informally in their schools. The debate in the field as to the categorization of these experiences goes beyond the scope of this research and will not be reviewed here (Rogers, 2013; Rogers, 2014; Hager & Halliday, 2006).

Many of the studies on teacher leadership take place in conjunction with formal university learning programs (Angelle, 2016; Klein, Taylor, Munakata, Trabona Rahman, McManus, 2018; Taylor et al., 2019; Wenner & Campbell, 2017). Klein et al. (2018) observed that the fact that a teacher leader enrolled in a university program gave her validity in relation to her peers and allowed her to take greater risks. Knowing that a teacher leader was in a formal preparation program for teacher leadership made other teachers in the teacher leader's school more willing to participate in teacher leadership initiatives and gave the teacher leader latitude to take risks. On a similar note, teacher leaders reported that the formal learning environment provided them a clear vision of what teacher leadership should look like and facilitated their creation of the necessary teacher leadership structures in their schools (Klein et al., 2018).

Another major way that teacher leaders learn to lead is through non-formal yet structured professional development programs (Wenner & Campbell, 2017). These programs are often affiliated with a nonprofit or a private foundation, such as the New Teacher Center or the National Education Association. Although the programs vary in delivery method and length, the content is fairly consistent. The programs teach aspiring teacher leaders pedagogical skills and strategies, content knowledge, and leadership skills (Borchers, 2009; Durias, 2010; Edge & Mylopoulos, 2008; Hanuscin et al., 2012; Hofstein et al., 2004; Shiu et al., 2004; Vernon-Dotson, 2008; Wenner & Campbell, 2017). This content is very similar to the content taught in

formal university programs (Wenner & Campbell, 2017). Many of the programs, both university

and nonformal programs, incorporate a mentoring or coaching aspect (McGregor, 2011).

Coaching has been seen to be successful for developing teachers throughout their careers

(Allen et al., 2011; Campbell & Malkus, 2011; Desimone, 2009; Neuman Cunningham, 2009;

Powell et al., 2010; Russo, 2004; Sailors & Price, 2010, as cited by Blazar & Kraft, 2015). This

holds true for the development of teacher leaders as well, and many formal university programs

use coaches to help teachers develop into teacher leaders. At Lamar University in Texas,

experienced teachers are trained to be field supervisors for new teachers. The experienced

teachers must possess a master's degree in education and apply for the position of mentor

teacher, which includes specific professional development throughout their tenure as supervisor

to the student teacher. This program eliminates the field supervisor that many universities

employ to supervise student teachers, educating and empowering master teachers to become true

teacher leaders in their schools (Harris, Lowery-Moore, Farrow, 2008). In this way, the Lamar

University teacher education program hopes to teach new teachers to become teacher leaders by

transferring the leadership qualities and actions that they see in their own mentors.

McGregor (2011) conducted a study in British Columbia of students involved in a

different educational leadership development program (the Certificate in School Management

and Leadership [CSML]) that also used a coaching model to support the emerging teacher

leaders. She wanted to understand the role that coaching played in the students' experience as

developing educational leaders. The coaching model focused the teachers' learning on

deepening their professional skills through a project-based approach (Hargreaves & Fink, 2006;

McGregor, 2011; Muijs & Harris, 2007). The participants in the CSML program developed a

leadership learning project for their school over the course of a three-week period and then

returned to their schools to implement the project with support from their course instructor and their coach. The coaches in this program were defined by their lead learner status. Ninety-two percent of the coaches were themselves involved in professional development activities as learners. Many of the coaches reported that their relationship with the CSML student was one of mutual learning and discovery. This is important because they were modeling the lead learner mentality that teacher leaders need (Hargreaves & Fink, 2006; McGregor, 2011; Muijs & Harris, 2007). The CSML participating teachers were not only able to collaborate and learn with their coaches but were also able to pattern this behavior with their colleagues and other stakeholders. In turn, their colleagues had a deep regard for the CSML teachers and their learning initiatives. Although the study cannot conclude causality, McGregor (2011) argues that the success of the CSML teachers and the close resemblance of their patterns to those of their own coaches suggests that coaching is a beneficial component in learning how to lead.

In a 2005 review of educational leadership programs, the Wallace Foundation found that leadership programs were severely lacking in quality control and sought to change the way educational leaders were trained in six U.S. school districts. It funded new educational leadership preparation programs for these districts that focused on recruiting high-quality candidates, emphasized cohort learning and problem-based learning, aligned the leadership learning with district standards, and had some component of clinical work (Turnbull, Riley, MacFarlane, 2013). The Wallace Foundation reported that two years after the leadership preparation program's inception, each district had revamped its pipeline for school leaders in a significant way. In a 2019 reflection on the initiative, the Wallace Foundation stated that its new educational leadership preparation program had a significant impact on student achievement based on standardized test scores and improved retention for educational leaders (Hunt & Kean,

2019). This initiative showed an improvement in educational leader preparation because of the interventions in the way principals were trained in their districts. Although the target audience was administrators and not teacher leaders, similar to the findings of the Briggs, Rhines Cheney, Davis, Moll (2013) report, the Wallace Foundation discovered that the central role of coaching has implications for preparation for teacher leadership.

The third way that teacher leaders learn to lead is through informal means (Rogers, 2014b). Informal learning happens all the time, in formal learning contexts and through the general course of being in a school (Rogers, 2013; Rogers, 2014). Because informal learning is learning by experience, it is almost always unintentional, not organized, continuous, and ubiquitous and has no established objective. Therefore, it is hard to measure (UNESCO, 2009; Rogers, 2013).

A 2003 survey of 179 teacher leaders from 39 states in the United States were asked about their experience as teachers on their journey to leadership. Ninety-three percent of them had conducted professional development for colleagues, and 83 percent of them had engaged in curriculum development, 84 percent were department chairs, and 84 percent mentored new teachers. Eighty-two percent of these teachers said that they had received no training to assume these leadership positions. Their principals assumed that since they were good teachers, they had the skill set to be good leaders (Dozier, 2011). Teachers are expected to have leadership skills innately or acquire them as classroom teachers (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009; O'Hair & O'Dell, 1995).

Teachers require a certain set of knowledge, skills, and characteristics to become teacher leaders, such as knowledge of change, school culture, servant leadership, and school reform. They also need the skills of advocacy, empathy, questioning, vision creating, and collaborating,

and the characteristics of risk-taking, persistence, challenge, service, efficacy, and reliance (Phelps, 2008). Some of these topics, skills, and characteristics are not readily taught to educators or discussed in schools. It is therefore unreasonable to expect that teachers master these in their natural environment; rather, they need to be deliberately mentored and/or taught.

Recognizing that teacher leadership is beneficial to the success of schools, some states have begun to mandate that leadership become part of the teacher preparation curriculum. North Carolina has added teacher leadership as part of its teacher evaluation process, citing that every teacher must be a teacher leader in his classroom, school, and profession (Herzog & Abernathy, 2011). While naming everyone as a teacher leader can easily delegitimize the actual teacher leadership role, states are realizing the importance of teacher leadership and, in turn, the need to educate teachers on the practices that they will need to become successful teacher leaders, including how to solve school-wide problems (Herzog & Abernathy, 2011).

No matter the structure, programs designed to help teachers learn to lead have nuances that might impact their effectiveness. In a study of 20 early childhood educators in Australia who were asked to participate in a teacher learning project that would produce a statement about their schools' philosophies about early childhood learning, the professional learning community was designed to help this group of teachers learn to lead through the process of study and discussion. The learning community, however, had a mixed level of success. Teachers from the same school were placed in a cohort and taught to analyze their teaching practices and philosophies in order to articulate them into a vision. A few teachers in the course became dominant, and their opinions overshadowed those of their peers. This resulted in some choosing not to speak and, in some cases, not attending the learning experiences. The structure of the learning did not build collegiality and trust, and therefore not all of the teachers were able to

learn the necessary skills they would need to lead others (Maloney & Konza, 2011). These teacher leaders did complete a final project, a statement about the school's philosophy, but it did not contain a fair representation of all voices, and some teachers did not gain leadership skills. Merely declaring that a school has professional development (time set aside for teachers to enhance their pedagogical training and continue their own professional education) and scheduling sessions for teachers to meet does not guarantee that teachers will engage in true professional learning.

In contrast to the Australian approach, a school in the Netherlands had teachers participate in a course to enhance their subject knowledge in science and technology. The team was then asked to work together to design a curriculum based on this new learning. This team gave equal consideration to each team member's experience, allowed teachers to share new lessons they tried in their classrooms, synthesized what teachers in the group had in common, explored tensions and dilemmas together, and made a collaborative decision about how to move the curriculum forward (Sjoer & Meirink, 2016). These steps focused not only on creating and maintaining a teaching community but, more significantly, on the learning of the teachers in the learning community. All teachers left with a toolbox of new skills that they could use to lead their own learning communities. These two studies demonstrate that despite the format and content of the teacher learning, the group dynamics and norms are key in ensuring teacher learning prepares teacher leaders.

While there are not a lot of studies that explore how teacher leaders are prepared for their leadership roles, there are many studies that look at how principals are prepared for their roles as instructional leaders (although this area of research is notably lacking as well). Research from the George W. Bush Institute exploring states' requirements for principal licensure identified the

lack of correlation between the needs of schools and the requirements to become an instructional school leader (Briggs et al., 2013). States use out-of-date standards to admit and license principals, and therefore the principals are not prepared to be instructional leaders or provide support for their teachers and often do not have the skill set to hire and cultivate new teaching talent (Briggs et al., 2013). Thirty-six of the states had no data to show principal effectiveness based on their preparation programs, and 37 had no data to correlate student success with principal preparation. Most states admitted that their criteria for approving principal preparation programs had very little to do with the content of the program but, rather, mostly to do with the affiliation with a higher institute of education. This study about principal preparation programs in the United States is a useful tool to point at the lack of oversight in educational leadership preparation programs in general. There is reason to believe similar trends exist in teacher leader preparation programs.

The New Teacher Center collected data from 1.3 million teachers in 30,000 schools in 23 states by using the TELL survey to better understand instructional leadership and student achievement. It identified nine areas of teacher leadership as part of the larger study and looked for trends about how teacher leaders made the most impact. It found that teachers had the most control over the way they taught but that only 24.1% of teachers reported that they had moderate or large roles in leadership. For this 24.1%, there was a direct correlation between the highest control over leadership levels and the student achievement, as measured by standardized tests in both English language arts and math (Ingersoll et al., 2017). The correlation between teacher leadership and student achievement was strong and existed regardless of school size, level of poverty, percentage of minority students, percentage of new teachers, and level of school (elementary, middle, or high). The robust sample size and the strong findings make a very

strong case for investing in teacher leadership in a meaningful way to improve student achievement.

Just as Jewish day school educators vary widely in experience and training, the same is true for leaders in Jewish day schools. Some may have risen to leadership positions within their school over time, and others may have moved from different schools. These leaders often participate in professional development programs designed for Jewish and non-Jewish educational leadership, and many have professional degrees from institutes of higher education, focused on Jewish studies, education, or both. While some of these conditions are similar to those in public school, there are enough differences in the way teachers are hired, learn to teach, and continue their professional growth that warrant additional consideration.

There have been numerous leadership development programs at the Jewish universities specifically geared toward educating Jewish day school teachers and leaders, such as YU Lead (Yeshiva University), DSLTI (Jewish Theological Seminary), Delet (Brandeis University and Hebrew Union College–Jewish Institute of Religion). There were also Jewish educator preparation programs at American Jewish University, New York University, and Stanford University. In addition, there are programs designed to support and teach Jewish day school educators hosted by various non-profit organizations, such as the Jewish New Teacher Project, Prizmah, Pardes Educators Institute, the Jewish Early Childhood Educational Leadership Institute, and the Foundation for Jewish Camps. These various programs take on different approaches to preparing Jewish day school educators and leaders, with components such as university courses, internships, mentoring, and coaching.

Burstein and Kohn (2017) researched the ELAI Jewish day school leadership program run by Bar Ilan University, which attracted mid-career teachers into a cohort model program to

teach them to become school leaders. The program enrolled 80 teachers from 41 New York area

Jewish day schools from 2008–2014. The program stressed a heavy clinical component focused

on mentoring. In Burstein and Kohn's evaluation of the program, they found that the mentoring

component was critical to the participants in the program. The participants reported that they

learned the important components of leadership from their mentors.

In Jewish day schools, it seems, however, that the culture of learning is not always

consistent. Tamir et al. (2017), while tracking new teachers as they began their careers in Jewish

day schools, found that there was little opportunity for professional advancement for Jewish day

school teachers. They also uncovered that while Jewish day school teachers felt a personal

connection to their administrators, and most felt that they had positive relationships with their

administrators, there was very little indication of a "productive professional culture," where

teachers and administrators use their relationship to further the quality of teaching and learning

in the school (Tamir et al., 2017). Teachers in Jewish day schools in this same study did believe

overwhelmingly that the actions on the part of the school aligned with the beliefs that the school

espoused, but this did not necessarily translate into a change in teaching practice (Tamir et al.,

2017). This suggests that although the professional culture might not be fully enacted, there

seems to be an unspoken value system that members of the school all espouse.

Over the last 20 years, there have been numerous programs to improve teacher

preparation, classroom instruction, curriculum design, and leadership development. Foundations

such as Avi Chai, Legacy Heritage, Jim Joseph, and the Lauder Foundation have poured millions

of dollars into the professionalization of the Jewish day school field. Programs such as the

Tanach Standards and Benchmarks, Matok, MaDYK, Tal Am, Netta, and Lehavin u' Lehaskil

have worked to improve the material taught to children and the way teachers learn to teach and

assess it. The Day School Leadership Through Teaching program, Day School Leadership

Training Institute, YOU Lead, Head of School Preparation Program, SULAM, Azrieli PEP

seminar, and the Jewish New Teacher Project have all worked to professionalize the way that

Jewish day school teachers and leaders are prepared to work in Jewish day schools. The

Consortium for Applied Research in Jewish Education has been conducting studies on Jewish

day schools, their teachers, and their leaders to better understand the impact this education is

having. Because this explosion of research has happened for the most part over the last 20 years,

there are still many unknowns in the field.

Factor 5: Time

The last major factor that has a strong influence on the success of teacher leadership in

schools is ensuring that adequate time is available to allow teacher leaders to pursue their various

functions. Numerous studies on teacher leadership confirm that teacher leaders need time during

the school day to lead (Borchers, 2009; Gaffney & Faragher, 2010; Chesson, 2011; Chew &

Andrews, 2010; Wenner & Campbell, 2017). Without time to collaborate and work together, the

other four conditions (i.e., role definition, trust, adult learning community, and professional

learning) will not develop, and therefore teacher leaders will not be able to lead new school

initiatives (Leblanc & Shelton, 1997). In this section, I will consider the dialectic of formal

versus informal schedules for teacher leaders' time, time allocations, learning over time, and

teacher's individual commitments as demonstrated by the use of their time.

In considering the time necessary for successful teacher leadership, an exploration of the

different types of interactions that occur among teachers and their time demands is in order. In a

large-scale study of the McREL's Balanced Leadership program, Goddard et al. (2015) evaluated

how teachers interact. While they noted some benefits from informal collaboration (such as

parking lot, lunchroom, and hallway conversations), their study suggested that more formal, scheduled professional learning time had a much more significant impact on improved teacher practice. Informal time is fleeting and unpredictable. Formal time allows significant, planned opportunities for collaboration and shared learning. Formal time is required to collaboratively look at student work and develop shared goals and language. Goddard et al. (2015) also noted the significant impact of teacher observations of their peers. Observing colleagues' teaching transformed the conversations that teachers were able to have with one another.

Just as formal arrangements for learning together support the growth of teacher leaders, so too does their learning together over time. Darling-Hammond (2009) evaluated professional development research over the past few decades, which yielded a list of effective delivery methods. Professional development that is focused on content and pedagogy, allows teachers to be active learners, provides an opportunity to reflect on teachers' learning with colleagues, and is sustained over time is effective. The researchers stress that one-time workshops, training of techniques and behaviors, or professional development that asks teachers to make changes without ongoing support are not efficacious (Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009). Similarly, Louis et al. (1995) contend that schools need to allot time for teachers to meet regularly. Stoll et al. (2006) found in their review of over 150 studies of professional development activities in England that many initiatives failed to account for the time that would be needed and were not as successful as had been hoped. Further reinforcing the above paradigms for impactful professional development, Svendsen's 2020 international review of effective teacher development practices distilled five critical components. These included sustainability over time, effective modes of delivery, learning communities with collaboration, relational trust within the learning communities, and time and space for professional

development (Svendsen, 2020). It is interesting that two of these components relate to time allocation for professional development and that the three other components have been discussed in previous sections as important factors in teacher leadership success. It is clear from Svendsen's review that without sustained learning over time, teacher learning cannot be achieved.

When teacher leaders assume leadership roles, they engage in many distinct tasks. In a 2013 dissertation that studied how teacher leaders became leaders, the teacher leaders described the various tasks that occupied their time as teacher leaders: leading professional development workshops, observing their peers, supporting their peers, building and fostering a learning community, "grunt work," helping the principal, talking to colleagues, speaking on behalf of the teachers, and chairing committees (Sanocki, 2013). While these teachers did not self-identify as leaders, they were seen by others as leaders and therefore asked to help beyond their classrooms. Most teachers in the study stayed after school to complete all of these leadership tasks, but there were teacher leaders who were relieved of some regular teaching duties to provide time for teacher leadership tasks (Sanocki, 2013).

Time is also a key commodity to allow teacher leaders to engage their colleagues in communities of practice—a group of people who have a common passion and interact regularly to learn to improve (Lave & Wenger, 1991) or professional learning communities—collaborative groups of teachers focusing their own goals that are directly tied to student learning (DuFour, 2004). In a 2019 article that explored the allocation of time in established communities of practice in 10 American high schools, Akinyemi, Rembe, Shumba, and Adewumi, noted that while teachers met regularly, sufficient time was not devoted to their professional learning communities, and they were unable to collaborate in a meaningful way. Akinyemi et al. (2019)

discovered that communities of practice allocating less than one hour every week to learning together do not have time to properly collaborate. Clearly, teacher leaders who do not have sufficient time to learn with their teams will most likely be ineffective in supporting their colleagues in a meaningful way.

Growing professionally requires a commitment of time, a fact that is true for all teachers. In a study of England's professional development program for teachers, Stoll et al. (2006) found that teachers needed to negotiate for sufficient learning time to attend workshops or participate in learning communities Even if teachers were independently motivated to learn, they needed time allocated in their yearly schedule to be able to participate. This required negotiation with the teachers' unions on a policy level to ensure that England's teachers were able to partake in the learning that was being offered. Without time provided for teachers' learning, there is no possibility that even talented and committed teacher leaders will be able to support their colleagues' professional development.

Teacher leaders will also require time to prepare professional development and other supports. Greater time may be necessary given the variability of learning needs that the adult learners in the school may present. Richter, Kunter, Klusmann, Lüdtke, Baumert (2011) and Louws, Meirink, van Veen, van Driel (2017) documented that teachers who are mature learners have specific preferences for the ways in which they learn. In Louws et al.'s (2017) research of teachers in 309 Dutch secondary schools, early (one to three years in the field) and late-career (seven or more years in the field) teachers displayed distinct preferences for how and what they learn, while mid-career teachers reported that they were more willing to be flexible to different types of learning opportunities. Richter et al. (2011) analyzed teacher learning from 1,939 German teachers in 198 schools and found that mid-career teachers sought out more formal

learning, while later-career teachers opted for the use of professional literature, like a bookclub, as a means of learning. Because of the different avenues needed to reach all of the teachers in a school, teacher leaders require significant time to prepare and implement these different learning opportunities.

Not only time, but the perception of time plays a role in teachers' learning and their openness to their professional development. Muijs and Harris (2006) found that a major obstacle to the success of teacher leadership initiatives was teachers' sense that they did not have enough time to take on new learning tasks for themselves and perceived the teacher leader–led initiatives as "extra work" (Muijs & Harris, 2006). In this way, the administrator is critical in both ensuring that teachers and teacher leaders have sufficient time to develop professionally and ensuring a shared vision and perception that such learning is not extra, but central to the role of educator.

A core aspect of Jewish day schools is teaching about Judaism. This usually means a dual curriculum, including one that parallels a secular school in America and a second that includes Hebrew language, Bible studies, Talmud, and Jewish thought. Many Jewish day schools focus their curriculum on the ancient Jewish texts in their original biblical Hebrew and Aramaic. This leads to students having multiple teachers, at the minimum one for secular and one for religious studies, even in the younger grades. These teachers might be part time or part of multiple teaching teams (religious and secular) in order for the school to have a full-time equivalent position. While time is always a constraint in schools, it can be exacerbated in schools with a dual curriculum. Malkus (2002) writes about the "integration" of Judaic and general studies in classrooms, which is one strategy schools use to create the time it takes to teach additional subjects during a school day. The time constraints of the schedule are compounded by the necessity for multiple roles and duties, as private schools rely on their

teachers to perform duties outside of classroom teaching (i.e., recess duty, lunch duty), which can also limit the amount of time that teachers have to lead or participate in collaborative activities.

There is minimal research about teacher leaders in Jewish day schools, although there may be many teachers functioning in these roles both formally and informally. This study aims to unpack how teacher leaders are functioning in their Jewish day schools and to better understand how the five factors identified as supporting teacher leadership are embodied in this unique environment.

Chapter III—Research Questions

The research suggests that teacher leaders, teachers who are also leading their colleagues in meaningful experience about teaching in learning, are most successful when five crucial factors for success are met (Acker-Hocevar & Touchton, 1999; Angelle, 2016; Barth, 2001; Danielson, 2006; Jackson et al., 2010):

- clear roles and communication with one another and their administrators,

- trust among the adults in the community,

- a culture of learning and support,

- leadership training, and

- time to implement change.

This study will be focused on understanding the role that teacher leaders play in Jewish day schools from the perspective of teachers, whether or not they are officially identified as teacher leaders within their schools.

The research questions for this study are as follows:

1) With what frequency do teachers facilitate activities such as mentoring, running professional learning communities, leading professional development workshops, coordinating book clubs, leading teacher rounds, giving peer feedback, and making curricular decisions in Jewish day schools?

> Hypothesis 1: I anticipate that Jewish day school teachers engage in the leadership behaviors that I am naming "teacher leadership behaviors." I think there will be more teacher leadership behaviors such as mentoring and coaching and fewer behaviors such as leading book clubs or teacher rounds. I think these activities will occur with somewhat regular frequency, although I do not think that many

teams will be meeting weekly or biweekly, rather gravitating toward monthly or every few months. I do not anticipate that every teacher engaged in these activities will call him/herself a teacher leader.

2) To what extent are these five conditions that support teacher leadership—role definition, trust, adult learning community, professional learning, and time for leadership tasks—present in Jewish day schools?

> Hypothesis 2: I would expect that teachers in Jewish day schools report that these five conditions that support teacher leadership are present in their schools. I suspect that they will report greater trust, role definition, and communication than all other factors and that time and culture of learning will be relatively lower in comparison, given the time constraints and limited professional development.

3) What is the relationship between the teacher leadership behaviors associated with teacher leadership (mentoring, running professional learning communities, leading professional development workshops, coordinating book clubs, leading teacher rounds, giving peer feedback, and making curricular decisions) and the conditions that support teacher leadership (role definition, trust, adult learning community, professional learning, and time for leadership tasks) in Jewish day schools?

> Hypothesis 3: I think there will be a connection between the identified conditions for successful teacher leadership and the activities that teacher leaders engage in. I do think that there will be examples of teachers and schools where the conditions are not met but where teachers are still exhibiting leadership behaviors. This is because of the mission-driven nature of teaching in a Jewish day school. There are teachers who remain in their schools despite other negative factors

because they are driven to remain a part of the community and part of the mission of the school. Therefore, I believe there will be teachers engaging in teacher leadership in Jewish day schools in less-than-ideal conditions.

Chapter IV:—Methods

Design

This study followed a non-experimental research design, as the researcher did not manipulate the independent variables (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). A convenience sample was utilized, as the schools were selected based on the researcher's connection to the school. The survey asked the teachers and teacher leaders to describe their relationships to teacher leadership and allowed some evaluation of the conditions in the school, such as teacher roles and communication, trust, culture of learning, clear vision, training, and time for professional learning. [See Appendix A for the survey.]

Participants

Survey respondents were teachers, administrators, and teacher leaders working at Jewish day schools selected for their geographic and size diversity. There was a mix of elementary, middle schools and high schools represented. A definition of teacher leadership was given to each survey respondent, and teachers and teacher leaders identified their relationship to teacher leadership through the survey tool.

Power Analysis

A power analysis was conducted in order to determine the optimal sample size for this study. Based on the experimental study design, correlations, t-tests, and a multiple regression were conducted to determine the relationship between factors, looking at differences between groups and whether five factors predict greater teacher leadership. In this study, there are five predictors. Cohen (1988) suggested that the desired power level should be a minimum of 0.8, meaning the corresponding Beta value (type II error) would be set at 0.2. Additionally, Cohen (1988) defines a small effect size as 2% and a medium effect size as 15%. The accepted level of

effect size is 10%–15%. For this study, I set the effect size to 15%. Therefore, in calculating the optimal sample size, the effect size was set to 0.15, the type II error rate (1-power) was set to 0.2, and alpha (the significance level) was set to equal 0.05. In order to achieve optimal power, there should be 91 participants.

Procedure

The Principal Investigator (P.I.) sent the proposal to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) for review. Once the proposal was accepted, the P.I. reached out to Jewish day school principals, teacher leaders, and heads of school through email. The schools received a letter explaining the study (see Appendix B). Schools that choose to participate then shared the letter explaining the study (see Appendix C) along with the survey link for their own teachers. The schools were offered the aggregate results of the study once completed (See Appendix D). All participants were assured that their answers would be anonymous. Teachers were asked to complete the survey within two weeks of receiving the letter. A reminder email was sent to all schools 10 days after the initial request, asking any who did not complete the survey to do so. Included at the beginning of the survey was a brief explanation of the research and a statement of consent (see Appendix D). A variety of schools were invited to participate in an effort to diversify the size of schools and number of teachers at each school that were represented in the sample. With the approval of the IRB, an email to school administrators, either principal or head of school, asked specific schools to participate, and at that time, administrators were asked to identify any teachers and teacher leaders who would be willing to fill out the survey. Those who agreed to participate were sent a copy of the survey via Survey Monkey, an online survey dissemination tool. Contact information of participating teachers was not collected.

Data Analysis

In order to answer the research questions, I began with descriptive statistics and frequency analysis. Descriptive statistics were used to answer questions one and two to analyze the data related to the teacher leadership behaviors and five conditions. For question 3, I first conducted a correlation analysis of the conditions that support teacher leaders in a school and the teacher leader behaviors to determine if there was any relationship. Based on that, a series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses were run to isolate particular predictors of teacher leadership behaviors/outcomes.

Chapter V—Results

This study explored the presence of conditions that support teacher leadership, teacher leadership behaviors, and the relationship between these factors in Jewish day schools. To answer the study's research questions, independent sample *t*-tests and multiple regression models were completed using data collected for the purposes of this study. A total of 34 teacher leaders and school administrators from 30 different Jewish day schools were contacted. These leaders sent the survey to teachers in their schools. The power analysis determined an optimal sample size of 91 participants. A total of 71 teachers and administrators responded to the survey. However, only 53 of the respondents completed the scaled questions on the survey. Therefore, the remainder of this section will only analyze the responses from those 53 individuals. Most of the respondents were female (79%). The majority (57%) of respondents work in schools with more than 500 students, whereas 23% work in schools with 100–500 students—6% work in schools of 101–200 students, 4% work in schools of 201–300 students, and 13% work in schools of 301–500 students. Below is a breakdown of school size.

Figure 1

Breakdown of School Size

Size of School

0-50   51-100   101-200   201-300   301-500   501+
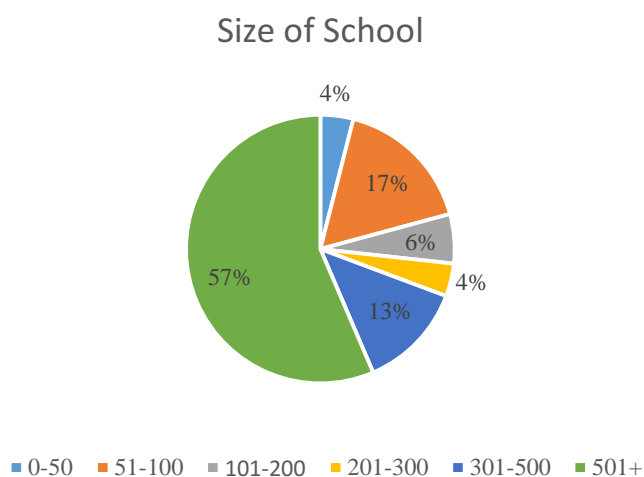
All of the participants work in schools that are well established. Only one works in a school that was established in the last 15 years, and only three work in schools established between 15 and 30 years ago. Most of the teachers teach elementary (51%) or middle school (36%), with 8% teaching high school and 6% teaching preschool. Slightly more teachers teach only general studies (45%) compared to those who teach only Judaic studies (40%). The remaining 15% teach both general and Judaic studies.

The majority (59%) of respondents were only teachers, 13% were only administrators, 6% were teachers and administrators, and 17% were teachers and department chairs. The breakdown of positions for the remaining respondents is in Figure 2, below.

Figure 2

Breakdown of Participant Role in the School
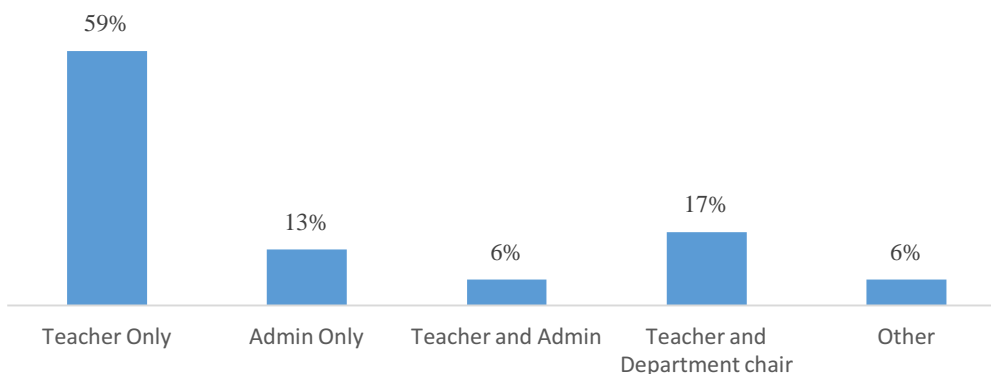
Research Question 1

To answer the first research questions, I analyzed the survey responses to better understand the frequency of teacher leadership behaviors in the surveyed schools. I had hypothesized that there would be some level of frequency of teacher leadership behaviors but that more formalized behaviors might not be seen as frequently. The results of the survey showed that the most frequent teacher-facilitated activities were *consulting with fellow teachers*

about students, where 91% do so at least every other week, and *meeting colleagues about teaching and learning*, where 89% do so every other week. The least frequent teacher-facilitated activities were *running a book club*, with 85% responding "never," *lead professional development for teachers*, with 81% reporting they do so less than once a month, and *lead a professional learning community*, with 77% reporting a less-than-once-a-month frequency.

Figure 3 depicts the response for the frequency of all of the activities. Additionally, Table 1, below, displays the means and standard deviations for the frequency of each activity, where *once a week or more* was given a value of 4 and *never* was given a value of 1.

Figure 3

Percent Frequency Breakdown of Teacher Activities
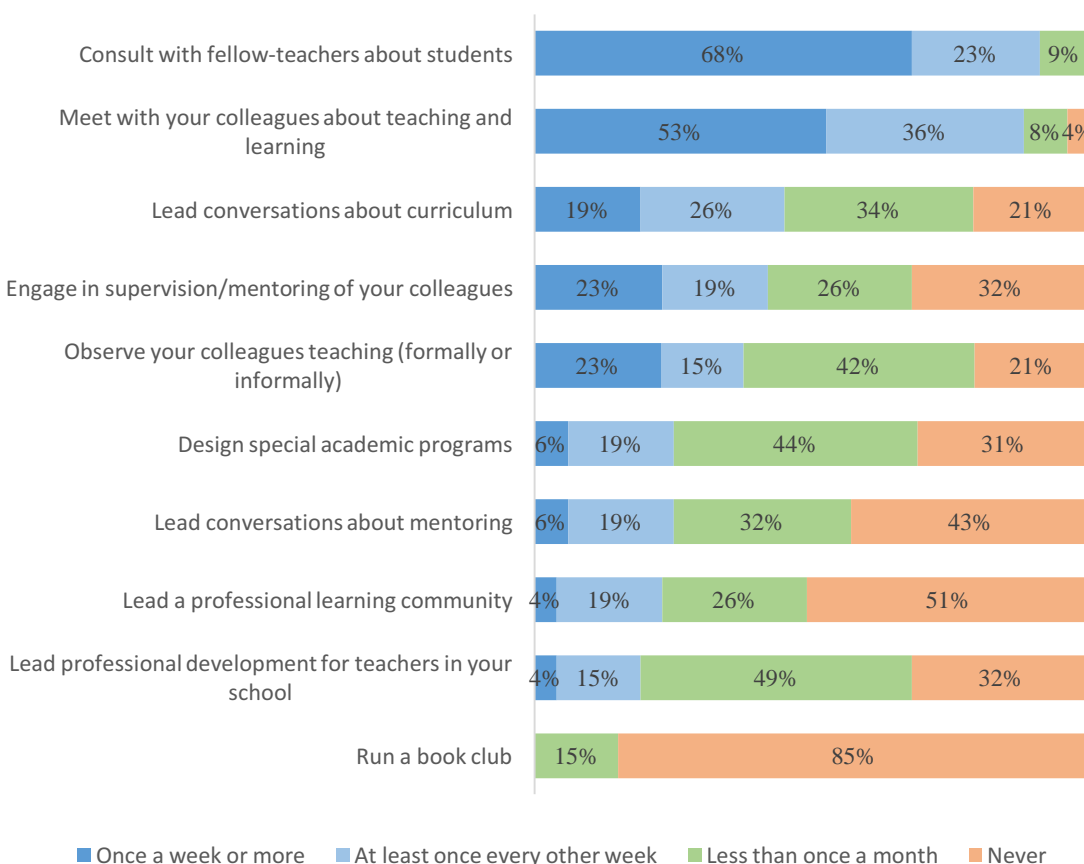
Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for the Frequency of Teacher-Facilitated Activities

Activity	Mean	SD	N
Consult with fellow teachers about students	3.58	.66	53
Meet with your colleagues about teaching and learning	3.38	.79	53
Lead conversations about curriculum	2.43	1.02	53
Observe your colleagues teaching (formally or informally)	2.40	1.06	53
Engage in supervision/mentoring of your colleagues	2.32	1.16	53
Design special academic programs	2.00	.86	53
Lead professional development for teachers in your school	1.91	.79	53
Lead conversations about mentoring	1.87	.92	53
Lead a professional learning community	1.75	.89	53
Run a book club	1.15	.36	53

Respondents were also asked how frequently others in their school perform the same activities. Figure 4 provides a comparison of respondents frequency of performing each activity versus that of other staff. As depicted in the figure, overall, the respondents acknowledge that they perform the activities at similar frequencies to their colleagues, with some variance. The activities that the respondents reported performing more frequently than their colleagues are: consult with fellow-teachers about students, meet with your colleagues about teaching and learning, engage in supervision/mentoring of your colleagues, and observe your colleagues teaching (formally or informally). The activities that the respondents reported as performing less frequently than colleagues included: lead conversations about curriculum, design special

academic programs, lead conversations about mentoring, lead a professional learning

community, lead professional development for teachers in your school, and run a book club.

Figure 4

Comparison of Frequency of Activity by Respondents Versus Other Staff

Category	Once a week or more	At least once every other week	Less than once a month	Never
Other School Staff: Consult with fellow-teachers about students	64%	31%		6%
Respondent: Consult with fellow-teachers about students	68%	23%		9%
Other School Staff: Meet with your colleagues about teaching and learning	49%	29%	20%	2%
Respondent: Meet with your colleagues about teaching and learning	53%	36%	8%	4%
Other School Staff: Lead conversations about curriculum	26%	26%	31%	18%
Respondent: Lead conversations about curriculum	19%	26%	34%	21%
Other School Staff: Engage in supervision/mentoring of your colleagues	17%	21%	40%	21%
Respondent: Engage in supervision/mentoring of your colleagues	23%	19%	26%	32%
Other School Staff: Observe your colleagues teaching (formally or informally)	14%	20%	47%	20%
Respondent: Observe your colleagues teaching (formally or informally)	23%	15%	42%	21%
Other School Staff: Design special academic programs	18%	14%	55%	14%
Respondent: Design special academic programs	6%	19%	44%	31%
Other School Staff: Lead conversations about mentoring	16%	14%	37%	33%
Respondent: Lead conversations about mentoring	6%	19%	32%	43%
Other School Staff: Lead a professional learning community	14%	16%	41%	29%
Respondent: Lead a professional learning community	4%	19%	26%	51%
Other School Staff: Lead professional development for teachers in your school	14%	14%	51%	22%
Respondent: Lead professional development for teachers in your school	4%	15%	49%	32%
Other School Staff: Run a book club	6%	4%	18%	73%
Respondent: Run a book club			15%	85%

■ Once a week or more ■ At least once every other week ■ Less than once a month ■ Never

Secondary Analysis for Research Question 1

Secondary analysis for research question 1 was conducted to understand if the role of the

respondent was a factor in the teacher leadership behaviors reported. Is there a difference in the

frequency in which teachers facilitate activities such as mentoring, running professional learning

communities, leading professional development workshops, coordinating book clubs, leading

teacher rounds, giving peer feedback, and making curricular decisions in Jewish day schools based on whether or not the respondents consider themselves leaders?

Independent sample t-tests were conducted, and there were significant differences in the frequency at which some activities were performed dependent on whether the respondent was a teacher leader. There were significant differences for: leading professional development for teachers in the school, $t(44) = 2.89, p < .01$; engaging in supervision/mentoring of colleagues, $t(44) = 2.09, p < .05$; and leading a professional learning community, $t(44) = 2.24, p < .05$. Participants that identify as leaders engage in the above activities more frequently than those who do not identify as leaders. A breakdown of the frequency of activity based on those who identified as leaders is provided in Table 2. Figure 5 depicts the activities that had significant differences between those who consider themselves leaders and those who do not.

Table 2

*Mean Difference in Frequency of Activity by Respondents Versus Other Staff*

Activity	Teacher Leader	Mean	SD	N	*p*
Meet with your colleagues about teaching and	Yes	3.36	.74	33	.68
learning	No	3.46	.66	13	
Lead professional development for teachers in	Yes	2.12	.82	33	.01
your school**	No	1.38	.65	13	
Lead conversations about curriculum	Yes	2.58	1.00	33	.09
	No	2.00	1.08	13	
Lead conversations about mentoring	Yes	1.93	.93	33	.19
	No	1.54	.88	13	
Engage in supervision/mentoring of your	Yes	2.55	1.12	33	.04
colleagues*	No	1.77	1.17	13	
Consult with fellow teachers about students	Yes	3.58	.61	33	.86
	No	3.54	.78	13	
Lead a professional learning community*	Yes	1.94	.93	33	.03
	No	1.31	.63	13	
Run a book club	Yes	1.12	.33	33	.36
	No	1.23	.44	13	
Observe your colleagues teaching	Yes	2.39	.97	33	.26
(formally or informally)					
	No	2.00	1.22	13	
Design special academic programs	Yes	2.09	.78	33	.08

	No	1.61	.87	13

*= p < .05; **= p < .01

Figure 5

Mean Difference in Frequency of Activity by Respondents Versus Other Staff for Activities with

Significant Differences
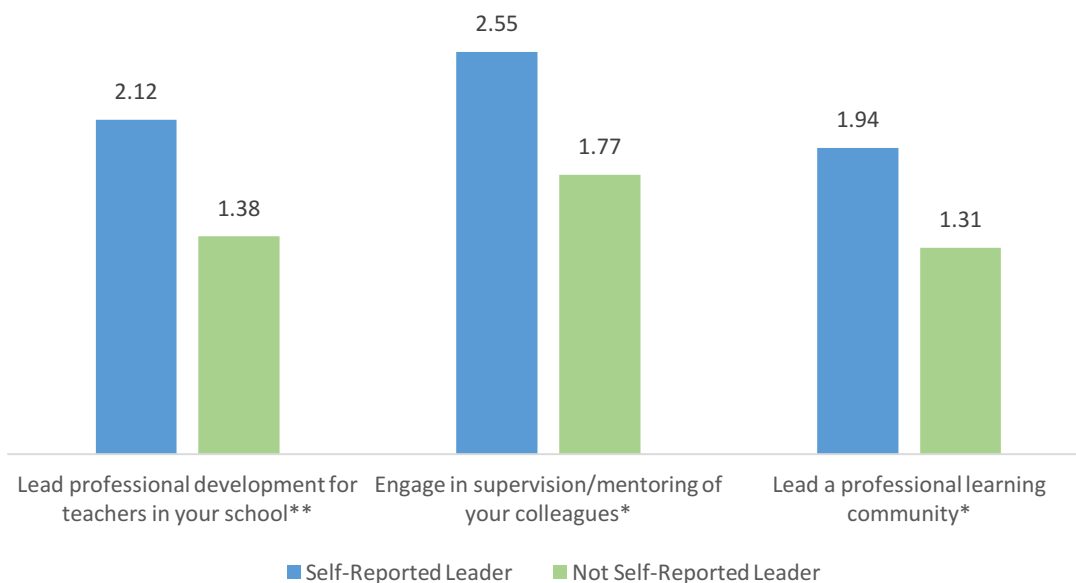
* = *p* < .05; ** = *p* < .01

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were differences based

on each respondent's role in the school and the frequency with which that individual does the

activities. There were significant differences in the frequency with which the activities were

performed based on the participant's role for the specific activities of: leading professional

development for teachers in our school, $F(3,46) = 3.12$, *p* < .05; leading conversations about

mentoring, $F(3,46) = 2.89$, *p* < .05; engaging in supervision/mentoring of your colleagues,

$F(3,46) = 5.96$, *p* < .01; and observing your colleagues teaching (formally or informally) $F(3,46)$

$= 4.51$, *p* < .01. Post-hoc tests were conducted to determine where the significance lay. For lead

professional development for teachers in our school, there was a difference between those who

were only teachers and those who were only administrators. For leading conversations about

mentoring, there was a difference between administrators and teachers (either only teachers or teachers and department chairs). For engage in supervision/mentoring of your colleagues, there was a difference between administrator and teacher and a difference between teacher and department chair and teacher only. For observe your colleagues teaching (formally or informally), there was a difference between administrator and teacher and teacher and department chair and differences between administrator and teacher and teacher and administrator. In all cases, those who were only teachers performed the activities less frequently than those who were either only administrators or those who were teachers and department chairs. Figure 6 depicts the mean significant differences.

Figure 6

Differences in Frequency of Activity By Role for Activities With Significant Differences
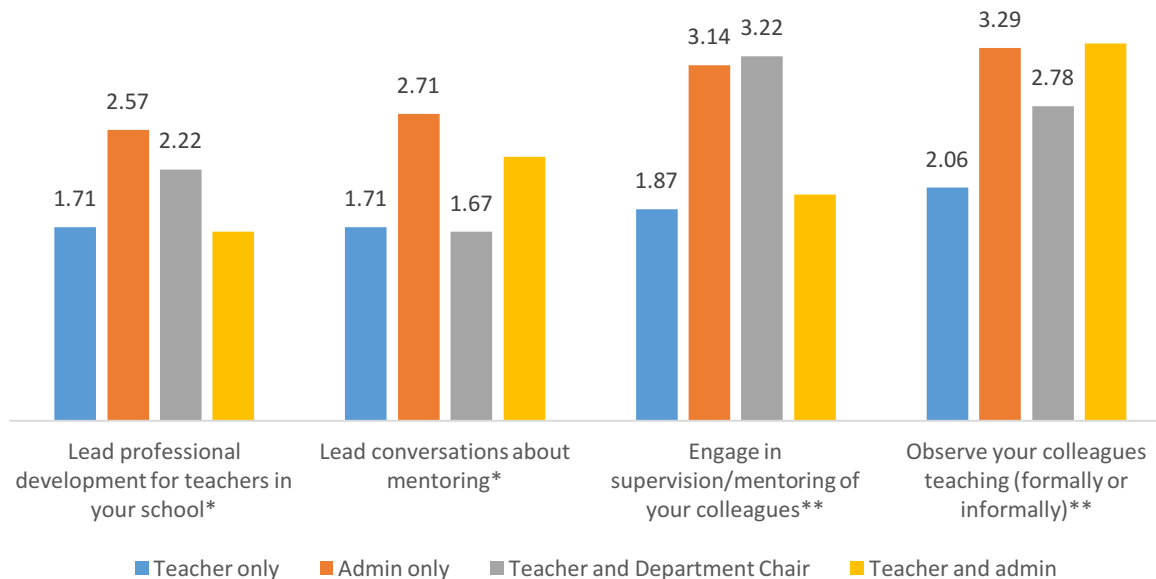
$* = p < .05; ** = p < .01$

Table 3

Mean Differences in Frequency of Activity By Role

Activity	Role	Mean	SD	N	p
Meet with your colleagues about teaching and learning	Teacher only	3.48	.77	31	.20
	Administration only	3.71	.49	7	
	Teacher and department chair	3.00	.71	9	
	Teacher and administration	3.67	.58	3	
Lead professional development for teachers in your school**	Teacher only	1.71	.78	31	.04
	Administration only	2.57	.79	7	
	Teacher and department chair	2.22	.67	9	
	Teacher and Administration	1.67	.58	3	
Lead conversations about curriculum	Teacher only	2.29	1.07	31	.18
	Administration only	3.14	.79	7	
	Teacher and department chair	2.67	.87	9	
	Teacher and administration	2.00	1.00	3	
Lead conversations about mentoring	Teacher only	1.71	.97	31	.05
	Administration only	2.71	.76	7	
	Teacher and department chair	1.67	.71	9	
	Teacher and administration	2.33	.58	3	

Table 3 (continued)

Engage in supervision/mentoring of your colleagues*	Teacher only	1.87	1.09	31	.00
	Administration only	3.14	.90	7	
	Teacher and department chair	3.22	.83	9	
	Teacher and Administration	2.00	1.00	3	
Consult with fellow teachers about students	Teacher only	3.61	.67	31	.86
	Administration only	3.71	.49	7	
	Teacher and department chair	3.56	.53	9	
	Teacher and Administration	3.33	1.15	3	
Lead a professional learning community*	Teacher only	1.65	.88	31	.39
	Administration only	2.14	.90	7	
	Teacher and department chair	1.89	.78	9	
	Teacher and Administration	2.33	1.53	3	
Run a book club	Teacher only	1.13	.34	31	.62
	Administration only	1.29	.49	7	
	Teacher and department chair	1.22	.44	9	
	Teacher and Administration	1.00	.00	3	
Observe your colleagues teaching (formally or informally)	Teacher only	2.06	1.00	31	.01
	Administration only	3.29	.76	7	

Table 3 (continued)

	Teacher and department chair	2.78	1.09	9	
	Teacher and Administration	3.33	.58	3	
Design special academic programs	Teacher only	1.77	.86	31	.05
	Administration only	2.71	.95	7	
	Teacher and department chair	1.89	.60	9	
	Teacher and Administration	2.33	.58	3	

* =p < .05, ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001

A *t*-test was conducted to determine whether there was a difference in the frequency of which activities were performed by others in the school based on whether the respondent reported that there were teacher leaders in the school. There were significant differences in the frequency in which the following were performed: meet with your colleagues about teaching and learning, $t(49) = 2.40$, $p < .05$; lead professional development for your school, $t(49) = 2.39$, $p < .05$; and lead conversations about mentoring, $t(49) = 2.70$, $p < .05$. In each of the above cases, there was a higher level of frequency for those who stated that there were teacher leaders in their school than those who said there were not. Table 4 provides means and standard deviations for the frequency with which each of the activities was reported, based on whether there was a teacher leader present. Figure 7 below depicts the significant differences.

Table 4

Mean Frequency of Activity Based on Whether Teacher Leaders Were Reported in

the School or Not

Activity	Teacher Leader Present	Mean	SD	N	p
Meet with your colleagues about teaching and learning*	Yes	3.37	.76	43	.02
	No	2.63	1.06	8	
Lead professional development for teachers in your school*	Yes	2.33	.94	43	.02
	No	1.50	.53	8	
Lead conversations about curriculum	Yes	2.68	.98	43	.16
	No	2.00	1.41	8	
Lead conversations about mentoring*	Yes	2.28	1.05	43	.01
	No	1.25	.46	8	
Engage in supervision/mentoring of your colleagues	Yes	2.43	.97	44	.15
	No	1.88	1.13	8	
Consult with fellow teachers about students	Yes	3.64	.57	44	.10
	No	3.25	.71	8	
Lead a professional learning community	Yes	2.19	.98	43	.43
	No	1.87	1.13	8	
Run a book club	Yes	1.15	.88	43	.26
	No	1.13	.35	8	
Observe your colleagues teaching (formally or informally)	Yes	2.35	.95	43	.19
	No	1.88	.83	8	
Design special academic programs	Yes	2.44	.96	43	.12
	No	1.88	.64	8	

$* = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001$

Figure 7

Mean Frequency That Activities Are Performed Based on Whether There Is a Reported Teacher

Leader in the School for Activities With Significant Differences
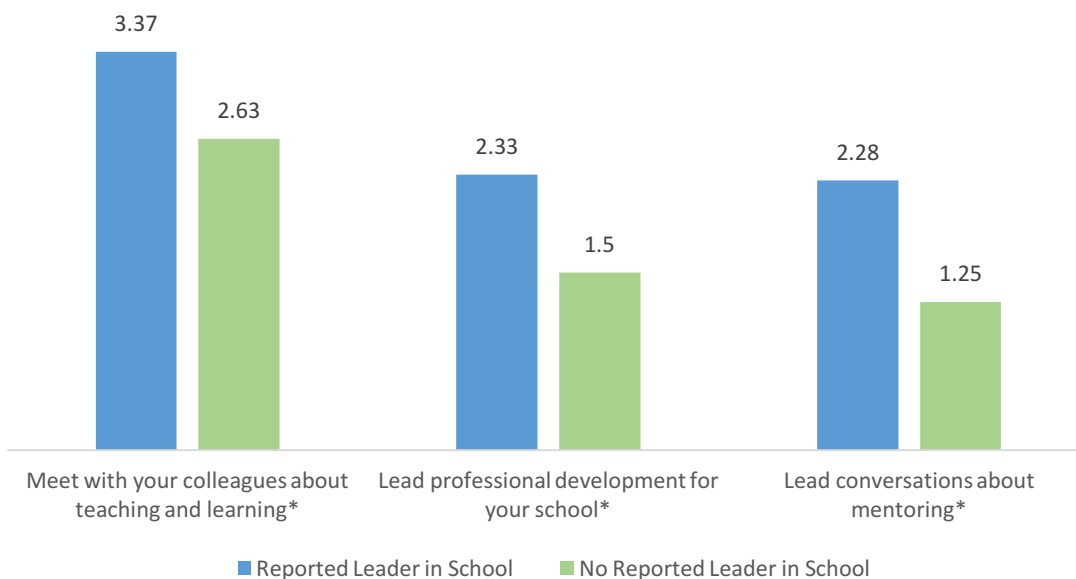
Research Question 2

The second research question considered the presence of the five conditions that support

teacher leadership in Jewish day schools. I had hypothesized that the conditions would be

present but that there would be variability among them, with a prediction that time would be the

most constraining condition. Each of the subscales of role definition, trust, adult learning

community, professional learning, and time for leadership tasks were calculated based on

averaging the responses to specific questions. The scale ranged from strongly agree, receiving a

5, to strongly disagree, receiving a 1. As depicted in Table 5, the respondents report greater trust

and adult learning community than the other factors. In comparison, they report lower time and

professional learning. It is also evident from Table 5 that all five of these conditions had a mean

that fell into the strongly agree or agree category. Table 5 gives the means of the conditions that support teacher leadership in descending order.

Table 5

Mean Frequencies of the Conditions that Support Teacher Leadership

Supportive factor	Mean	SD	N
Trust	4.20	.54	53
Adult Learning Community	4.11	.55	53
Role Definition	3.76	.77	53
Professional Learning	3.48	.74	53
Time	3.36	.73	53

Secondary Analysis on Research Question 2

A secondary analysis was conducted on research question number 2 to understand whether the role of the respondent was a factor in the response about the conditions for teacher leadership. Are there differences based on the respondent's role and whether or not there were teacher leaders present in the school in the presence of five conditions that support teacher leadership: trust, adult learning community, professional learning, and time for leadership tasks?

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were differences based on the role of the respondent and the level at which the five factors were present. There was no significant difference. An independent samples t-test was conducted to determine whether there were differences based on whether or not the respondents consider themselves leaders. There was only a difference in the level of professional learning based on whether the respondent self-reported as a leader, $t(44) = 2.14$, $p < .05$. Those who identified as a leader said there was more

professional learning in their school (M = 3.64, SD = .73) than those who did not identify as a leader (M = 3.13, SD = 70).

An additional independent samples *t*-test was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences among the five factors based on whether or not there was a teacher leader in school. There were differences in adult learning community, $t(51) = 3.22$, $p < .01$, such that those schools that had teacher leaders had higher levels of adult learning communities (M = 4.21, SD = .49) than those schools that did not have teacher leaders (M = 3.62, SD = 3.62). Table 6 presents the means and standard deviations for each of the five factors that support teacher leadership based on whether or not there are teacher leaders present in the school. Figure 8 depicts the significant differences.

Table 6

Impact of Conditions Supporting Teacher Leadership On Presence of Teacher Leaders in the

School

Condition	Teacher Leader	M	SD	*p*
Clear Role	Yes	3.85	.73	.05
	No	3.31	.86	
Trust	Yes	4.25	.51	.15
	No	3.96	.68	
Adult Learning Community	Yes	4.21	.49	.02
	No	3.62	.57	
Professional Learning	Yes	3.48	.76	.99
	No	3.48	.71	
Time	Yes	3.42	.74	.17
	No	3.05	.66	

* = *p* < .05; ** = *p* < .01, *** *p* < .001

Figure 8

Impact on the Adult Learning Community of Having a Teacher Leader in School
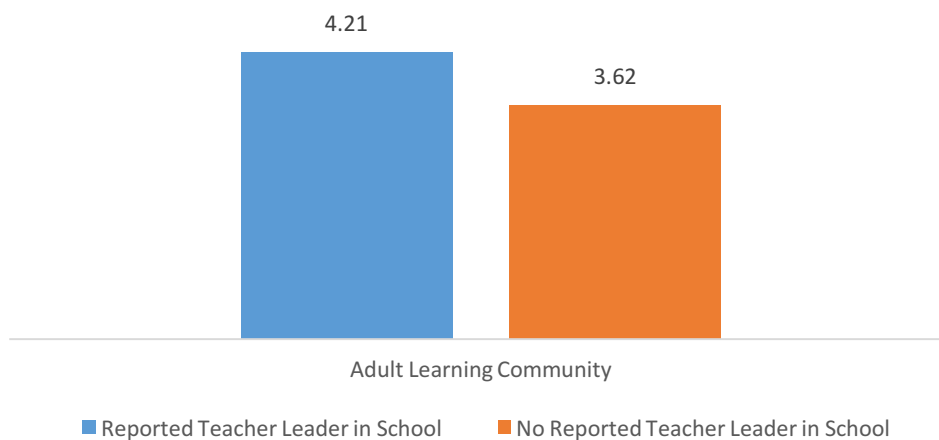
Research Question 3

The third research question asked if there was a relationship between the five conditions that support teacher leadership and the frequency of teacher leadership behaviors in Jewish day schools. I predicted that there would be a connection but was unsure what the connection would be since no research like this has been conducted before. Correlations were calculated in order to determine the relationship between the teacher leadership behaviors associated with teacher leadership (mentoring, running professional learning communities, leading professional development workshops, coordinating book clubs, leading teacher rounds, giving peer feedback, and making curricular decisions) and the conditions that support teacher leadership (role definition, trust, adult learning community, professional learning, and time for leadership tasks) in Jewish day schools. An additional variable was added from the Professional Learning Community Questionnaire (Sigurðardóttir, 2014) to measure the impact of teacher leadership behaviors on the school.

There was a direct relationship between role definition and lead conversations about mentoring $r(53) = .29$, $p < .05$, and engage in supervision/mentoring of your colleagues, $r(53) = .45$, $p < .01$. There were direct relationships with trust and meet with your colleagues about teaching and learning, $r(53) = .33$, $p < .05$, and consult with fellow teachers about students, $r(53) = .29$, $p < .05$. There was a direct relationship with adult learning community and meet with your colleagues about teaching and learning, $r(53) = .45$, $p < .001$; lead professional development for teachers in your school, $r(53) = .38$, $p < .01$; lead conversations about curriculum, $r(53) = .36$, $p < .01$; lead conversations about mentoring, $r(53) = .49$, $p < .001$; engage in supervision/mentoring of your colleagues, $r(53) = .33$, $p < .01$; and consult with fellow teachers about students, $r(53) = .38$, $p < .01$. There was a direct relationship between

professional learning and lead conversations about curriculum, r(53) = .28, $p < .05$. There were

no direct relationships between time for leadership tasks and any of the behaviors associated with

teacher leadership. Overall, the behaviors associated with teacher leadership that are most

related to the conditions that support teacher leadership were meet with your colleagues about

teaching and learning and lead conversations about mentoring. Table 7, below, depicts the

correlational matrix of these relationships.

Table 7

Correlational Matrix of the Relationship Between the Behaviors Associated With Teacher Leadership and the Conditions That

Support Teacher Leadership

Behavior	Role Definition	Trust	Adult Learning Community	Professional Learning	Time
Meet with your colleagues about teaching and learning	.12	.33*	.45**	.11	.28
Lead professional development for teachers in your school	.08	.05	.38**	.03	-.08
Lead conversations about curriculum	.03	.17	.36**	.28*	.18
Lead conversations about mentoring	.29*	.21	.49*	.09	.23
Engage in supervision/mentoring of your colleagues	.45**	.23	.33*	.22	.14
Consult with fellow teachers about students	.20	.29*	.40**	.07	.07
Lead a professional learning community	.12	.19	.21	-.03	-.07
Run a book club	-.07	.08	.07	- .09	.02
Observe your colleagues teaching (formally or informally)	.26	.26	.26	-.01	.69
Design special academic programs	.26	.27	.26	-.00	.16

* = *p* < .05; ** = *p* < .01, *** *p* < .001

Because the correlational matrix showed strong associations between many of the conditions and the behaviors, and no previous research in this area had been conducted, I did some exploratory individual regressions to determine whether any of the five conditions that support teacher leadership predict teacher leadership behaviors of the respondents. The individual regressions showed significances that had not been observed in the correlational matrix.

Role definition significantly predicted: lead conversations about mentoring $R^2 = .1$, $F(1.51) = 4.67$, $p < .05$; engage in supervision/mentoring of your colleagues, $R^2 = .16$, $F(1.51) = 9.36$, $p < .01$; consult with fellow teachers about students, $R^2 = .09$, $F(1.51) = 5.17$, $p < .05$; and observe your colleagues teaching (formally or informally), $R^2 = .18$, $F(1.51) = 11.12$, $p < .01$.

Trust did not significantly predict any of the teacher leadership behaviors. Adult learning communities significantly predicted: meet with your colleagues about teaching and learning, $R^2 = .21$, $F(1.51) = 13.26$, $p < .001$; lead conversations about mentoring, $R^2 = .10$, $F(1.51) = 5.34$, $p < .05$; and consult with fellow teachers about students, $R^2 = .15$, $F(1.51) = 8.72$, $p < .01$.

Professional learning significantly predicted: meet with your colleagues about teaching and learning, $R^2 = .11$, $F(1.51) = 6.14$, $p < .05$; lead professional development for teachers in your school, $R^2 = .13$, $F(1.51) = 4.30$, $p < .01$; lead conversations about curriculum, $F(1.51) = 22.28$, $p < .001$; lead conversations about mentoring, $R^2 = .13$, $F(1.51) = 7.52$, $p < .01$; and engage in supervision/mentoring of your colleagues, $R^2 = .15$, $F(1.51) = 9.21$, $p < .01$. Time significantly predicted: meet with your colleagues about teaching and learning, $R^2 = .22$, $F(1.51) = 14.16$, $p < .001$; and lead conversations about mentoring, $R^2 = .08$, $F(1.51) = 4.31$, $p < .05$.

In order to better understand how teacher leadership behaviors as a whole could be predicted by any of the five conditions, a composite variable was created. The variable consists

of meet with your colleagues about teaching and learning, lead professional development for teachers in your school, lead conversations about curriculum, lead conversations about mentoring, engage in supervision/mentoring of your colleagues, consult with fellow teachers about students, and observe your colleagues teaching.

A multiple regression was conducted to determine whether the five conditions that support teacher leadership predict teacher leadership behaviors of the respondents. The overall model was significant, $R^2 = .42$, $F(5.47) = 6.72$, $p < .001$. Forty-two percent of the total variance of teacher leadership behavior can be explained by the five conditions that support teacher leadership. The significant conditions within the model are clear role, Beta = .35 (p < .05), and professional learning, Beta = .42 (p < .01).

Chapter VI—Discussion

This study was conducted to understand the landscape of teacher leadership in Jewish day schools. The study explored whether there were teachers acting as teacher leaders by surveying school employees as to the presence of teacher leadership behaviors. These same respondents were asked if there were teacher leaders in the schools (either in name or merely in action). Respondents were also asked to name the conditions in their schools that have been identified in the general educational research to be conditions that support teacher leadership (Acker-Hocevar & Touchton, 1999; Barth, 2001; Danielson, 2006; Jackson et al., 2010). The results of this study suggest that there are indeed teacher leadership behaviors present in Jewish day schools, and this is largely due to the presence of the conditions that support teacher leadership.

Research Question 1

As Rowan (1990), Shulman (1987), Smylie (1996), and Wasley (1992) describe, teacher leaders focus on supporting their colleagues in their classrooms, and teacher leaders in Jewish day schools are doing just that. The respondents to this study reported high levels of informal types of leadership, such as *consulting with fellow teachers about students* and *meeting colleagues about teaching and learning*. These behaviors are consistent with what Gigante and Firestone (2008) call the "support tasks" of teacher leaders, where teacher leaders help support the work of their colleagues. As stated in the hypothesis, there were some leadership behaviors that were expressed more than others. It was not surprising, and consistent with the hypothesis, that respondents reported that teacher leaders engaged in "support" tasks. Respondents to the survey reported a high level of frequency of completing support tasks, although there were other leadership behaviors not practiced regularly.

A different category of teacher leadership behaviors, defined by Danielson (2006), Levenson (2014), and Barth (2001) as "formal teacher leadership" or defined by Gigante and Firestone (2008) as "developmental leadership," was not observed in this study. These are teacher leadership behaviors where teacher leaders facilitate the learning and development of their peers. Based on this survey, the research did not find a high prevalence of formal teacher leadership behaviors such as *running a book club*, *leading professional development for other teachers in the school*, *leading professional learning communities*, or *leading conversations about mentoring. T*his might suggest that although teacher leadership is present in Jewish day schools, it is not yet as formalized or developed as some of the more formal teacher leadership programs in the general education sector.

Fifty-nine percent of the respondents to the survey identify as "only teachers," which indicates that they are not formally assigned the title of "teacher leader." Many of these same respondents, however, reported that they are already exhibiting leadership behaviors. There seems to be a high percentage of Jewish day school teachers that identify as "teacher leaders." It is very likely that the same teachers who opted to fill out a survey for a doctoral dissertation consider themselves teacher leaders. The interest in furthering their own learning and the learning of their colleagues might also make these same types of people want to contribute to a doctoral study to enhance the learning of the field. This high percentage likely is not representative of all teachers in Jewish day schools, so one may consider the sample skewed. However, this same self-selected sample might benefit this study by focusing on teachers who already have a vested interest in enhancing the educational profession. Because these Jewish day school teacher leaders are not formally assigned roles as teacher leaders, they are focused on the less formal aspects of teacher leadership. While these informal roles are defined as teacher

leadership, they stress an emphasis on collegiality, collaboration, and continuous learning

(Angelle, 2016; Darling-Hammond, 1988; Lieberman, 1988; Silva et al., 2000), which differs

from the emphasis of formal teacher leaders. Formal teacher leadership roles have an influence

over the organizational conversation of the school (Silva et al., 2000). Because Jewish day

school teachers are operating as informal teacher leaders, rather than formal teacher leaders, this

might suggest that teacher leaders in Jewish day schools may not have an impact on school-wide

change the way teacher leaders in a more formal role do.

Hypothesis 1: Secondary Analysis

A secondary analysis was performed to understand whether the behaviors that the

respondents exhibited were at all influenced by their self-perception of teacher leadership.

Because I found in the original analysis of the data that there were more informal teacher

leadership behaviors being practiced as a whole, I wanted to isolate those teachers who identified

themselves as teacher leaders to better understand if these self-proclaimed teacher leaders were

performing more of the formal teacher leadership behaviors than their peers. The results

demonstrated that there was some difference in the teacher leadership behaviors that respondents

reported based on whether they consider themselves a leader. Teachers who consider themselves

leaders were more likely to lead professional development, engage in supervision or mentoring,

and lead professional learning communities than their peers who do not consider themselves

leaders. These are all behaviors associated with formal leadership (Silva et al., 2000). This

finding shows that although formal teacher leadership might not be the predominant form of

teacher leadership in Jewish day schools, it does exist.

In this secondary analysis of the survey data, I was also able to note that administrators

exhibit the behaviors of leading professional development, leading conversations about

mentoring, and observing colleagues teaching more frequently than department chairs and

teachers. What this implies is that the administrators in Jewish day schools themselves are acting

as educational and instructional leaders. Department chairs engage in supervision and mentoring

more frequently than administrators or teachers. This means that department chairs are leading

in a concentrated and formal role within their schools, which might suggest that trust is being

built in the community (Smylie et al., 2007). Because teacher leadership can be seen as a

continuum of teacher leadership behaviors, these initial survey results might suggest that the

surveyed Jewish day schools are in a phase of teacher leadership that is a precursor to more

formal leadership tasks for department chairs, such as facilitating teacher learning.

<div align="center">**Research Question 2**</div>

Research question 2 asked whether the five conditions that support teacher leaders in the

general education sector were present in the surveyed Jewish day schools. As Acker-Hocevar &

Touchton (1999), Barth (2001), Danielson (2006), and Jackson et al. (2010) concluded, the

presence of these five factors was crucial to enable teacher leaders to exhibit teacher leadership

behaviors. As Tamir et al. (2017) found in their research, Jewish day school teachers reported

that they had a personal connection to their administrators and felt that they had personal

relationships. I hypothesized that I would find the presence of all five factors but that trust, role

definition, and communication would be the most prevalent and that time and culture of learning

would be relatively less prevalent due to the strengths and limitations of Jewish day schools

(Tamir et al., 2017; Malkus, 2002). In this survey, teachers and leaders in Jewish day schools

reported the presence of all five factors (time, trust, adult learning community, role definition,

and professional learning). As predicted, trust was the most highly reported factor. It was also

predicted that time would be one of the lowest-rated factors by teachers and leaders, and this was also true.

Previous research about adult learning communities in Jewish day schools by Tamir et al. (2017) found that there were not consistent cultures of adult learning in Jewish day schools and that professional learning to advance one's career was not offered to Jewish day school teachers. In this study, however, teachers and administrators reported that there were strong adult learning communities in their schools and that they did have opportunities to advance professionally. They defined adult learning communities as an embedded culture of learning faculty. This conclusion was surprising given the previous study. Since both studies used a small convenience sample and were conducted four years apart in different contexts, there is an opportunity for further research to understand the nature of adult learning and professional learning in Jewish day schools.

Research Question 2: Secondary Analysis

While the initial analysis for the second research question was interesting, I conducted secondary analyses to discern whether the reported conditions differed in schools where respondents also reported the presence of teacher leadership. Wasley (1992) and Sjoer and Meirink (2016) concluded from their studies that professional learning communities need strong leaders with established learning community norms to succeed. The presence of these established conditions alongside the awareness of teacher leadership in the studied Jewish day schools would allow me to better explain the presence of teacher leadership. There was only one condition that appeared to be significantly different in schools where respondents reported the presence of teacher leaders as opposed to schools where respondents did not report the presence of teacher leadership: The significant factor was an adult learning community. This finding,

along with the secondary analysis from Hypothesis 1—that teachers who consider themselves leaders were more likely to lead professional development, engage in supervision or mentoring, and lead professional learning communities—allows one to see evidence of the findings that formal and acknowledged teacher leadership is more prevalent in schools with established adult learning communities. When there is no established community for adult learning, teacher leaders do not have the opportunities to engage in formal teacher leadership roles in Jewish day schools.

Research Question 3

Research Question 3 was intended to explore the connection between the conditions that support teacher leaders and the leadership behaviors observed in Jewish day schools. It is clear from the literature on teacher leadership that teacher leaders depend on established conditions to support their work (Acker-Hocevar & Touchton, 1999; Barth, 2001; Danielson, 2006; Jackson et al., 2010). Smylie and Hart (2000) also showed that it is critical to create a clear definition of teacher leader to help initiate teacher leadership behaviors. Supovitz et al. (2010) added that teachers with a clear definition of their own role also helped to advance the professional conversations about teaching and learning, which supports the findings that both role definition and professional learning are highly predictive conditions. In the research on Jewish day schools, Schick (2014) noted that Jewish day schools often lack clearly defined roles, and Tamir et al. (2017) found that there were few opportunities for teachers to enhance their professional learning in their Jewish day schools. Therefore, this study was an attempt to better understand if the conditions that Supovitz et al. (2010) found and Smylie and Hart's (2000) conditions were present in Jewish day schools, and if they were not, whether Schick's (2014) and Tamir et al.'s (2017) findings hold true for the surveyed schools in this study.

This study found that the five conditions that support teacher leadership in other contexts not surprisingly also support teacher leadership behaviors in Jewish day schools. Of the five conditions, four of them significantly predicted leadership behaviors. Role definition and professional learning predicted the highest frequency of leadership behaviors, followed by adult learning communities and time. What is surprising is the prevalence in the Jewish day schools of these conditions. One hypothesis to suggest the change in these findings over the past four years might be that perhaps some of the teacher and leader preparation programs that have become more prevalent and systematic in the past few decades. For example, Azrieli School at Yeshiva University, YU Lead; DSLTI; Delet; teacher preparation programs at AJU, NYU, and Stanford University; JNTP; Prizmah, Pardes Educators Institute; the Jewish Early Childhood Educational Leadership Institute; and the Foundation for Jewish Camps have made an impact on the leadership landscape of Jewish day schools. Further studies about the impact of these leadership interventions on Jewish day schools would help researchers better understand the reasons why these conditions are more prevalent, but that extends beyond the scope of this study. What is crucial for readers to understand from this data is that teacher leaders are leading in significant ways because these conditions are present.

Adult learning communities and time also influenced the prevalence of teacher leadership behaviors, although to a lesser degree. If one looks at the specific predictive behaviors, it makes sense that adult learning communities would not predict behaviors like engaging in the mentoring of colleagues or designing special programs because these behaviors are not related to a community of adult learners. Adult learning community did predict meet with your colleagues about teaching and learning, lead conversations about mentoring, and consult with fellow teachers about students, which are all communally focused teacher leadership behaviors.

The one condition that did not predict any leadership behaviors was trust. It is unclear from these findings why trust did not predict leadership behaviors. Trust did have some correlational relationships with leadership behaviors such as meeting with your colleagues about teaching and learning and consulting with fellow teachers about students. Because both of these behaviors also had other conditions associated with them, perhaps further analysis using the multiple regression model would be warranted to determine if trust is a significant predictor of leadership behaviors when combined with another condition, such as role definition or adult learning communities. If this were true, it would suggest that trust alone cannot predict teacher leadership behaviors, although it is an important factor in the overall picture.

Because many of the teacher leadership behaviors could be predicted by multiple conditions, I conducted a multiple regression that combined the most frequent teacher leadership behaviors into one variable in an attempt to understand how much of that behavior could be explained by the five conditions. Overall, 42% of these leadership behaviors were predicted by the combined conditions. This strongly confirms the hypothesis that these five conditions that allow teacher leaders to lead in general education schools are the same conditions that allow teachers to lead in Jewish day schools. Since this variable was a selection of the most frequently observed behaviors, it shows that the conditions present helped to make these behaviors possible. What the regression does not allow one to see is how to encourage teacher leadership behaviors that are not currently practiced in Jewish day schools, such as leading a book club. What this statistic suggests is that if Jewish day schools want to improve the most frequently observed teacher leadership behaviors, then they should invest in the five conditions.

Recommendations

This study has significant implications for Jewish day schools. As Barth (2001), Danielson (2006), Markow et al. (2012), and Wasley (1992) all found, in general education, there is a great need for the role of teacher leader in schools to maintain job satisfaction, teacher retention, and enhanced teaching and learning. An additional benefit is that teacher leaders also reduce the stress on school administration. Similar needs were found in Jewish day schools (Kidron et al., 2016; Rosov Consulting, 2017). With enhanced attention to creating systems for teacher leadership in Jewish day schools, perhaps some of the crises of leadership could be avoided. With an added focus on establishing these five conditions, schools might be able to build a system of growth for teachers and support for leaders. Schools can focus their attention first on creating the conditions of role definition, professional learning, and adult learning community, as these three have been shown to impact the largest number of teacher leadership behaviors.

There are concrete steps that school leaders can take to achieve these conditions in their schools. It is clear from this study that creating defined roles for teachers and leaders with communication about what those roles entail creates the space for teacher leadership. Similarly, investing in the professional learning of teachers—teaching them how to lead—allows them to take on the leadership tasks that, in turn, enhance the climate of the school.

Creating clearly defined roles for teachers and leaders with communication about what each does can be concretely achieved. Levenson (2014) portrays three teachers who identified needs in their school and who were, in turn, able to carve out specialized roles for themselves to achieve these school-wide goals. Similarly, leaders can identify the needs of their schools and help teachers define the parameters of their leadership to achieve these goals. Making the roles,

tasks, and parameters specific and achievable will help teacher leaders understand what they must do and where they should not overstep. The clear parameters of role definition and the corresponding conversation between teachers and leaders to define these roles will allow teachers to assume leadership tasks. When teachers themselves are leading, they in turn will emphasize collegiality, collaboration, and continuous learning with their colleagues (Angelle, 2016; Darling-Hammond, 1988; Lieberman, 1988; Silva et al., 2000).

The research has shown that student learning is positively affected when teachers are learning (Borko, 2004; Goddard et al., 2015; Parlar et al., 2017), and the schools that have the highest student achievement have the highest collaborative learning among teachers (Ronfelt et al., 2015). There are many opportunities both in the general and Jewish education sectors for teachers to continue their professional learning. These opportunities range from formal degree programs to informal learning experiences. As Hunt and Kean (2019) found, many effective programs are using a combined approach to adult learning that comprise a combination of recruiting high-quality candidates, offering problem-based learning, emphasizing cohort learning, and aligning leadership learning with district standards, combined with some component of clinical work (Turnbull et al., 2013). This cocktail of learning opportunities is present in many of the leadership development programs that have been designed for Jewish day schools specifically, and school leaders can recommend these already existing programs to their teachers. Explicitly investing in the professional learning of teacher leaders might enhance the teachers' skills and abilities to lead their colleagues, which, in turn, might positively affect student learning.

Although trust was not a significant factor in predicting teacher leadership in this study, it still did have a correlational relationship to some teacher leadership behaviors. In light of this, it

might be a factor worth investigating further. Schools should not ignore the potential influence that establishing trust might be able to offer them. In order to establish trust in a school, school leaders must allow time for teachers to get to know one another and their leaders. Trust is built through interpersonal exchanges on a social level and by eliciting personal vulnerability (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). Teachers will trust one another and their leaders if they feel a personal connection. Leaders can also build a trusting community by being transparent about goals, successes, and even failures. When leaders take responsibility for a mistake, teachers tend to trust them more. As discussed above, in Jewish day schools, teachers and administrators often hold multiple roles in the school and the wider community—many are parents in the school, they frequent the same synagogues, they travel in the same social circles. This might be a reason why the levels of trust in the surveyed schools may inherently be stronger than in the community at large. Another conclusion that might be drawn from the high levels of trust and the high levels of self reported teacher behaviors (but not necessarily the title of "teacher leader" or the formal role) could be related to the mission-driven nature of teachers in Jewish day schools. Jewish day school teachers might feel that they are in a safe environment to take professional risks and tie their success more directly to their students' success. Therefore, teachers who are willing to take professional risks and engage in "teacher leadership behavior" because the conditions of support are in place and the motivation for success is so compelling. The most elusive condition, *time*, is also a critical investment for schools. Creating *adult learning communities* and establishing communities of *trust* might require schools to invest in more complex systems for teacher support, but the investment to establish teacher leadership may be worth the time and resources.

While it is clear that teachers need time with their colleagues to enact all they have learned, to create spaces for adult learning, and to build trust (Borchers, 2009; Gaffney &

Faragher, 2010; Chesson, 2011; Chew & Andrews, 2010; Wenner and Campbell, 2017), this study saw that teachers in Jewish day schools report that they do not have sufficient time to engage in these behaviors. While teachers did report a lack of time, they also reported that their leadership behaviors were still happening, and many of them with high levels of frequency. While leaders should consciously set aside time for the other conditions to come to fruition and time for teacher leaders to engage in leadership tasks, further research must be conducted on time itself to understand how much time should be allotted to maximize teacher leaders' impact. Because this study did not ask respondents to report how much time they spent on each task, or whether these behaviors were happening during school hours or on their own time, one needs more information to understand how much allotted time teacher leaders need in order to be effective at these tasks.

Limitations and Future Study

As stated earlier, this study relied on a convenience sample obtained through email communication and word of mouth. Knowing this, combined with the small sample size, this study does not represent all Jewish day schools and does not offer a complete picture of teacher leadership in all Jewish day schools. The small sample size may affect the reliability of the secondary analyses conducted. Since the data set was quite small and the statistical analyses were complex, there may be reason to question the reliability of the numbers. If the study had included the 91 participants that the power analysis suggested was ideal, the findings would have been more representative and significant. Furthermore, demographic information such as school size, gender, and grade level taught was collected but not analyzed. These factors may play a role in the leadership behaviors and even perceived conditions and could be further studied.

Additionally, the Jewish denomination of the school and the personal denomination of the respondents were not asked about, but this could add more insight into the trends of teacher leadership in Jewish day schools if these trends are influenced by some level of religious conviction. Increasing the sample size and adding these parameters to the research might allow a more representative sample from all Jewish day schools and could shed light on the generalizability of these findings.

In order to better understand the general trends in Jewish day schools, this study was open to all Jewish day schools. For future research, it might behoove researchers to sample only schools where teacher leadership behaviors are present. This will allow them to better understand the impact of the five conditions on schools that already have teacher leaders, and better understand why teachers are able to successfully lead. A future study could target "high-performing schools" and perhaps "low-performing schools" to better understand what conditions and factors are most influential in these institutions.

Similarly, not all teacher leadership behaviors should be given the same weight in terms of school impact. In Little's (1990) work, she looks at specific teacher behaviors in their collaborative relationships particularly storytelling, sharing, aid and assistance, and joint work. Her research found that patterns of teacher collaboration that support mutual assistance did contribute to teacher satisfaction and small indications of success. DuFour and Eaker (1998) also stress the importance of teacher collaboration on student success and suggest that teachers who work with their colleagues are better able to close the "knowing-doing gap" where they have confidence to try a new strategy or idea in their classrooms because their colleagues have given them a concrete pathway to success. Further research must be conducted to better understand which behaviors have the greatest impact on teachers' satisfaction, retention, and

student success, and from there, research can be conducted to better understand which conditions specifically target these impactful behaviors. This will allow schools to better allocate resources to have the most impact on teacher leadership behaviors.

There are other avenues that this study has left unexplored, such as the impact of the relationship that the five conditions have on one another. While each of the five factors holds merit on its own, it might be worth researching whether some combination of factors has a greater impact on teacher leadership than the individual factors alone. Another area to explore further would be to understand the role that teacher leadership plays in the teaching career ladder. One of the motivating factors for teachers to become teacher leaders is that they wanted more responsibility beyond their classrooms, but didn't necessarily want to become principals (Markow et al., 2013). It would behoove the field to conduct further research to better understand the career path of Jewish day school teachers and how the role of teacher leader either prepares teachers for administration, serves the purpose as a career destination for teachers who want to continue to learn, or perhaps plays a different role on the teacher-leader continuum. Understanding how the role of teacher leader affects the career of Jewish day school educators might help guide both the day schools themselves, as well as institutions of higher education engaged in teacher training to emphasize developing teacher leaders in the future.

Conclusion

While there are opportunities for future study about teacher leadership in Jewish day schools and the five conditions that support these efforts, what is clear from this research is that both leadership and the conditions that support teacher leadership are crucial to the success of Jewish day schools. The research has shown that creating conditions in schools for teachers to lead has a significant impact on the presence of teacher leadership. In turn, these teacher leaders

are able to enhance the teaching and learning in their own classrooms and impact the teaching and learning of their colleagues. This study suggests that school leaders might focus their energies and attention on establishing conditions in schools where teachers have the opportunity to take on leadership roles in order to make a greater impact on the school beyond their own classrooms. Teacher leadership is an often-overlooked resource in schools, and allotting more resources to ensuring the success of teacher leaders will have a ripple effect, enhancing the learning across an entire school.

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Appendix A:

Survey Items Demographic Information

About You/Your School

1) Size of School 0-100, 100-300, 300-500, 500+

2) What year was your school established?

3) What grades does it serve (ES, MS, HS) all that apply?

4) What is the age group that you mostly teach (ES, MS, HS)*?

5) How many years have you been at the school*?

6) What is your position at the school* (teacher, admin, department chair, other)?

7) Do you teach general studies, Judaic studies, or both?

8) Are you male, female, non-binary?

9) How often do you : Likert scale (1)Never, (2) Rarely – less than once a month, (3) Often – at least once every other week, (4) Frequently – once a week or more

Meet with your colleagues about teaching and learning

Lead professional development for your school

Lead conversations about curriculum

Lead conversations about mentoring

Engage in supervision/mentoring of your colleagues

Consult with fellow teachers about students

Lead a professional learning community

Run a book club

Observe your colleagues teaching (formal or informal)

Design special academic programs

10) How often does another teacher in your school: Likert scale (1)Never, (2) Rarely – less than once a month, (3) Often – at least once every other week, (4) Frequently – once a week or more

Meet with your colleagues about teaching and learning

Lead professional development for your school

Lead conversations about curriculum

Lead conversations about mentoring

Engage in supervision/mentoring of your colleagues

Consult with fellow teachers about students

Lead a professional learning community

Run a book club

Observe your colleagues teaching (formal or informal)

Design special academic programs

Items assess the following constructs:

1-5 role definition

6-16 trust

17-25 adult learning community

26-28 professional learning for the teacher leader

29-34 time

35-42 impact

For the next questions, please answer on a scale of 1-5, with 1 being not at all true – 2 a bit true, 3- somewhat true, 4- very true, 5- very much true

1) I have opportunities to participate in decision-making in the school that affects the teaching and learning.
2) The administration seeks my opinion before making a final decision
3) The administration respects my opinions on teaching practice*
4) It is clear what my roles is vs. that of the administration
5) The administration and I collaborate to improve the teaching at our school.
6) I trust the administration to listen if I need to discuss my teaching or my students.*
7) Teachers get good support in this school to improve their practice*
8) I can count on my colleagues to help me any time, even though it may not be part of their official field of work.*
9) The principals support me in dealing with students' behavior.*
10) My colleagues support me in dealing with students' behavior.*
11) I try to support my colleagues in implement new ideas into teaching.*

12) My colleagues support me if I want to change my teaching practice.*

13) There is an open and honest relationship among all staff, reflecting mutual trust.*

14) The teachers are good in handling and solving disagreements.*

15) The principals encourage teachers to collaborate.*

16) I am ready to collaborate with most teachers in this school.*

17) Teachers in this school share examples of good practice.*

18) Teachers in this school share ideas about how to deal with students' behavior.*

19) Teachers in this school are continually learning and seeking new ideas.*

20) I feel that I have ample opportunity to learn new things about teaching.*

21) My job provides me with continuing professional stimulation and growth.*

22) My colleagues show that they appreciate my contribution in teamwork.*

23) I often try what I learn from my colleagues in my classroom.*

24) I gain knowledge and new ideas from my colleagues useful for my teaching.*

25) I never discuss with my colleagues the effectiveness of my teaching methods.*

26) I have time in my scheduled day to work on my leadership.

27) I am engaged (or have been engaged) in some formal or informal program to learn more about leadership

28) I believe I am knowledgeable about teaching and learning

29) Time is arranged regularly for teachers to have collaborative preparation.*

30) I only work with the teachers who teach same subject (or subjects) or same grade level (or levels) as I do.*

31) I prepare my lessons at least once a month with my colleagues. *

32) There is a great deal of co-operative effort among teachers in this school.*

33) Teachers do not respect the time that is arranged for collaboration.

34) Principals respect the time that is set aside for collaboration.*

35) I am proud of being a member of staff in this school.*

36) My administrators help make my job easier

37) The learning community we have established helps me to be a better teacher

38) I like working with my colleagues*

39) If I could get a better paid job, I would leave the school.*

40) I am proud of being a member of staff in this school.*

41) I look forward to coming to school.*

42) I trust my administrator's opinions and strategies about teaching and learning.

About the TL

A teacher leader is someone who spends time in the classroom but also has some external responsibilities beyond his or her classroom that help the teaching and learning in the school. S/he might lead professional development workshops, book clubs, professional learning communities, mentor new teachers, give peer feedback or lead rounds, help make curricular decisions for the entire department. This person might be officially named a teacher leader or someone who has just voluntarily taken on this role.

1) Do you identify as a teacher leader by this definition?

2) Does anyone in your school meet the definition of teacher leader?

Appendix B:

Letter to Schools Requesting Participation

Name of School

Address of School

Dear Principal:

I would like to invite *(name of school)* **to take part in a study to learn more about the school conditions that support teacher leaders. Currently, there are many teacher leaders in Jewish day schools operating under various social conditions and we are trying to better understand what makes teacher leaders successful in their schools.**

This study will be conducted by Shira Loewenstein, Doctoral Candidate in the Azrieli School at Yeshiva University, as part of her doctoral dissertation work under the supervision of Dean Novick.

If your school agrees to participate in this study, we will ask your teacher leaders to fill out an online survey that will take approximately 15 minutes of their time. Participation in this study is completely voluntary. Teachers may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without penalty. Confidentiality of our research will be maintained at all times. There are no known risks associated with the participation in this research. Although your teachers will not receive any direct benefits we hope that this research will benefit future Jewish day school leaders.

In order to participate in this study, we need your teacher leaders to fill out an online consent form that will appear before the survey.

If you have any additional questions, you may contact me at 917-673-2858 or reply to this email.

Thank you.

Sincerely,

Shira Loewenstein

Appendix C:

Letter to Teacher Leaders Requesting Participation

Dear Teacher Leader:

You have been invited to take part in a study to learn more about the school conditions that support teacher leaders. You have been selected because we believe you are a teacher leader and we would like to understand more about the environment in which you are operating. Currently, there are many teacher leaders in Jewish day schools and we are trying to better understand what makes teacher leaders successful in their schools.

This study will be conducted by Shira Loewenstein, Doctoral Candidate in the Azrieli School at Yeshiva University as part of her doctoral dissertation work under the supervision of Dean Novick.

If you agree to participate in this study, we will ask you to fill out an online survey that will take approximately 15 minutes of your time. Participation in this study is completely voluntary. Teachers may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without penalty. Confidentiality of our research will be maintained at all times. There are no known risks associated with the participation in this research. Although you will not receive any direct benefits we hope that this research will benefit future Jewish day school leaders.

If you have any additional questions, you may contact me at 917-673-2858 or reply to this email.

Thank you.

Sincerely,

Shira Loewenstein

Appendix D:

Online Consent Form

ONLINE CONSENT FORM

You are being invited to participate in a research study titled "<u>Conditions of Success for</u> <u>Teacher Leaders in Jewish Day Schools</u>." This study is being done by Shira Loewenstein from Yeshiva University's Azrieli Graduate School of Jewish Education and Administration. You were selected to participate in this study because you are a teacher leader in a Jewish day school in North America. The purpose of this research study is to help leaders understand the conditions in schools that contribute to the success of teacher leaders in a Jewish day school. This could have a significant impact on the structure of support for future teacher leaders.

If you agree to take part in this study, you will be asked to complete an online survey. This survey will ask about demographics of yourself and your school, and about your perceptions of several other areas related to your role in your school. The survey will take you approximately **10-15** minutes to complete.

You may not directly benefit from this research; however, we hope that your participation in the study may impact how Jewish day schools structure their support for teacher leaders in the future.

We believe there are no known risks associated with this research study; however, as with any online related activity the risk of a breach of confidentiality is always possible. To the best of our ability your answers in this study will remain confidential. We will minimize any risks by not asking your name and by keeping the results of the survey password protected, with access limited to the research team.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you can withdraw at any time.

If you have questions about this project or if you have a research-related problem, you may contact the researcher, Shira Loewenstein by calling 917-673-2858 or by emailing sloewenstein@mail.yu.edu. If you have any questions concerning your rights as a research subject, you may contact Mr. David Wallach, Director of the Institutional Review Board at the Albert Einstein College of Medicine by calling (718) 430-2237 or by emailing david.wallach@einstein.yu.edu.

By answering "I agree" below, you are indicating that you are at least 18 years old, have read and understood this consent form, and agree to participate in this research study. Please print a copy of this page for your records.

If you wish to receive the aggregated data from this study, please leave your email address below:

Email address: _____