Chapter 1

DEVELOPING EFFECTIVE SCHOOL LEADERS

As more countries grant greater autonomy to schools in designing curricula and managing resources to raise achievement, the role of the school leader has grown far beyond that of administrator. Developing school leaders requires clearly defining their responsibilities, providing access to appropriate professional development throughout their careers, and acknowledging their pivotal role in improving school and student performance. What are the different roles and responsibilities of 21st-century school leaders and how have countries succeeded in developing effective school leaders at scale? This chapter summarizes OECD research on these questions.

A CHANGING PROFILE OF SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

PISA shows that a substantial proportion of students in OECD countries now attend schools that have high degrees of autonomy in different areas of decision making. PISA also finds that high-performing and equitable school systems tend to grant greater autonomy to schools in formulating and using curricula and assessments.[1] In some countries, the development and adaptation of educational content has been the main expression of school autonomy (Figure 1.1a). Others have focused on strengthening the management and administration of individual schools through market-oriented governance instruments or collaboration among schools and other stakeholders in local communities even while, in some cases, moving towards centralized governance of curricula and standards (Figure 1.1b). But effective school autonomy depends on effective leaders, including system leaders, principals, teacher leaders, senior teachers and head teachers, as well as strong support systems. That, in turn, requires effectively distributed leadership, new types of training and development for school leaders, and appropriate support and incentives. As a result, it is crucial for the quality of the education provided that school leaders are well-equipped to meet these demands and that leading a school is regarded as a valued profession. In some countries, focusing on the development of effective school leaders has become a key part of education reform (see Box 1.1).

Box 1.1 Ontario – Improving education through more effective school leaders

With the election of a new government in 2004, the provincial government of Ontario designed and implemented an education-improvement strategy (Energizing Ontario Education) that focused on three main goals: raising the level of student achievement, defined as 75% of students achieving the provincial standard in Grade 6 and achieving an 85% graduation rate; narrowing the gaps in student achievement; and increasing public confidence in publicly funded education.

To meet its goals, Ontario developed a coherent leadership strategy, adequate contextual support frameworks and concerted actions to include key actors, such as school boards, teachers' unions, academics and practitioners, in the reform process. Within the strategy, a specific leadership framework defines five domains for effective leaders: setting direction; building relationships and developing people; developing the organization; leading the instructional program; and being accountable.

The leadership strategy focuses on attracting good candidates, preparing them for their tasks, and supporting them as they work to improve the quality of instruction. School boards overtly plan for leadership succession. The process of attracting and preparing the right people begins before there is a vacancy to be filled. Potential candidates for school leader need to have an undergraduate degree; five years of teaching experience; certification by school level; two specialist or additional honor specialist qualifications (areas of teaching expertise) or a master's degree; and completion of a Principal's Qualification Program (PQP), offered by Ontario universities, teachers' federations and principals' associations, which consists of a 125-hour program with a practicum.

Mentoring is available during the first two years of practice for principals, vice-principals, supervisory officers and directors. Principals and vice-principals are required to maintain an annual growth plan, and their performance is appraised every five years, based on student achievement and well-being.

Source: OECD (2010b).

School leaders can define the school's educational goals, ensure that instructional practice is directed towards achieving these goals, observe and evaluate teachers, suggest modifications to improve teaching practices, shape their professional development, help solve problems that may arise within the classroom or among teachers and liaise with the community and parents. They are also in a position to provide incentives and motivate teachers to improve the quality of instruction.[2] PISA asked school leaders to report on their level of involvement in several issues, including making sure that teachers' work and development reflects the educational goals of the school, monitoring student performance and classroom activities, and working with teachers to resolve problems (Figure 1.2).

Figure 1.1a

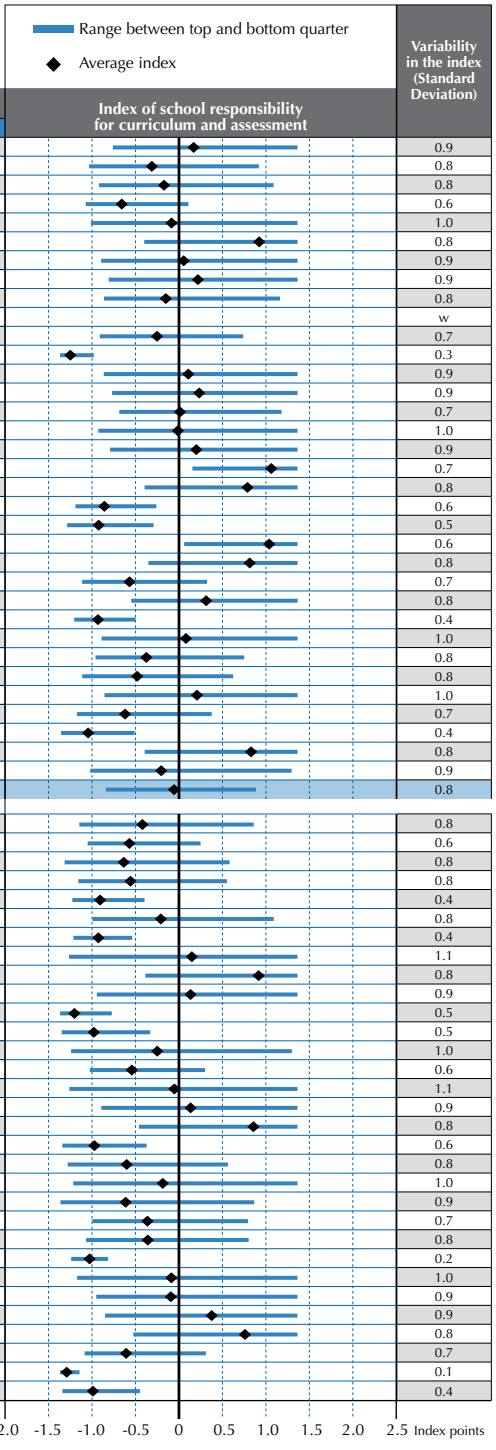
How much autonomy individual schools have over curricula and assessments

Percentage of students in schools whose principals reported that only "principals and/or teachers", only "regional and/or national education authority" or both "principals and/or teachers" and "regional and/or national education authority" have a considerable responsibility for the following tasks:

A Establishing student assessment policies
B Choosing which textbooks are used
C Determining course content
D Deciding which courses are offered

1 Only "principals and/or teachers"
2 Both "principals and/or teachers" and "regional and/or national education authority"
3 Only "regional and/or national education authority"

		A			B			C			D			Index of school responsibility for curriculum and assessment	Variability in the index (Standard Deviation)
		1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3		
OECD	Australia	65	33	2	92	8	0	46	40	14	75	24	1		0.9
	Austria	57	27	15	94	5	1	37	40	23	32	40	29		0.8
	Belgium	78	19	4	94	4	1	32	42	26	40	46	13		0.8
	Canada	28	62	10	40	49	11	12	51	38	44	54	3		0.6
	Chile	72	21	6	73	20	7	43	22	35	64	20	16		1.0
	Czech Republic	95	5	0	89	11	1	83	16	1	88	11	1		0.8
	Denmark	61	28	11	100	0	0	56	32	12	47	39	14		0.9
	Estonia	63	33	3	66	32	2	66	30	4	79	20	2		0.9
	Finland	50	43	7	98	2	0	32	52	16	55	39	6		0.8
	France	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w		w
	Germany	71	21	9	84	13	3	21	47	32	80	18	2		0.7
	Greece	20	12	68	7	8	85	1	3	96	6	5	88		0.3
	Hungary	94	6	0	98	2	0	49	36	15	43	28	29		0.9
	Iceland	92	8	1	93	4	3	61	26	13	48	42	10		0.9
	Ireland	87	13	0	97	3	0	29	37	34	78	21	1		0.7
	Israel	80	20	0	53	43	4	52	44	5	44	50	6		1.0
	Italy	91	8	1	99	1	0	59	27	14	49	25	27		0.9
	Japan	98	2	0	89	8	3	93	6	1	94	5	2		0.7
	Korea	92	6	2	96	4	0	89	8	2	79	17	4		0.8
	Luxembourg	9	33	58	13	80	7	9	72	20	18	61	21		0.6
	Mexico	56	15	29	63	11	26	14	7	79	5	5	91		0.5
	Netherlands	99	1	0	100	0	0	87	12	1	89	10	1		0.6
	New Zealand	81	17	2	99	1	0	79	20	1	92	8	0		0.8
	Norway	38	36	27	97	2	1	30	40	30	23	33	44		0.7
	Poland	92	8	0	92	8	0	93	7	0	40	31	29		0.8
	Portugal	35	37	28	98	2	0	5	3	92	10	5	86		0.4
	Slovak Republic	76	21	3	56	39	5	48	47	5	52	48	1		1.0
	Slovenia	46	48	5	72	27	1	34	59	6	28	52	20		0.8
	Spain	44	34	23	95	5	0	32	31	37	30	31	39		0.8
	Sweden	66	30	3	99	1	0	66	26	8	53	25	22		1.0
	Switzerland	57	27	16	40	40	20	21	41	38	24	50	27		0.7
	Turkey	42	29	30	14	18	68	9	15	76	14	21	65		0.4
	United Kingdom	88	12	0	98	2	0	77	20	2	86	14	0		0.8
	United States	46	40	13	62	28	10	36	46	18	58	37	4		0.9
	OECD average	66	23	11	78	15	8	45	31	24	50	28	21		0.8
Partners	Albania	51	16	33	91	8	1	35	7	57	35	12	53		0.8
	Argentina	74	20	6	81	16	3	28	43	29	8	30	61		0.6
	Azerbaijan	54	8	38	50	6	43	27	9	64	37	5	58		0.8
	Brazil	47	27	26	88	9	2	35	25	40	18	17	65		0.8
	Bulgaria	25	37	38	88	12	1	10	26	65	10	15	75		0.4
	Colombia	39	21	39	92	3	4	69	23	8	64	14	23		0.8
	Croatia	26	36	38	63	34	3	11	50	39	2	25	72		0.4
	Dubai (UAE)	77	10	13	55	17	27	62	13	26	59	16	25		1.1
	Hong Kong-China	93	7	0	93	7	0	81	17	2	87	13	0		0.8
	Indonesia	67	28	6	80	13	7	75	18	7	49	23	28		0.9
	Jordan	27	4	70	4	1	95	7	1	93	7	1	92		0.5
	Kazakhstan	31	22	47	16	14	70	11	18	71	40	22	37		0.5
	Kyrgyzstan	65	8	26	68	8	23	59	10	31	44	7	49		1.0
	Latvia	56	40	4	71	27	2	19	46	36	30	42	28		0.6
	Liechtenstein	69	25	6	54	5	40	41	0	59	53	9	38		1.1
	Lithuania	75	20	5	89	11	1	50	35	15	75	20	5		0.9
	Macao-China	95	0	5	100	0	0	94	6	0	81	14	4		0.8
	Montenegro	40	32	28	5	30	65	5	34	61	20	36	44		0.6
	Panama	41	25	34	52	26	22	41	23	36	26	23	51		0.8
	Peru	75	15	10	52	12	37	53	23	24	45	18	37		1.0
	Qatar	45	18	37	37	16	47	31	9	60	35	17	48		0.9
	Romania	42	36	22	86	13	1	46	33	20	31	41	29		0.7
	Russian Federation	63	25	12	65	27	8	21	40	39	71	22	7		0.8
	Serbia	49	44	7	19	59	23	2	41	57	0	12	87		0.2
	Shanghai-China	86	9	5	49	17	34	45	22	33	52	28	20		1.0
	Singapore	57	41	2	72	24	3	44	38	18	66	31	4		0.9
	Chinese Taipei	74	17	8	92	8	0	81	16	3	68	25	7		0.9
	Thailand	79	18	2	89	10	1	89	11	0	91	8	1		0.8
	Trinidad and Tobago	50	45	5	29	62	10	21	40	39	34	51	15		0.7
	Tunisia	11	11	78	0	1	99	3	14	83	4	9	87		0.1
	Uruguay	23	30	47	31	36	33	3	26	71	21	19	59		0.4



Source: OECD, *PISA 2009 Database*, Table IV.3.6.

Figure 1.1b

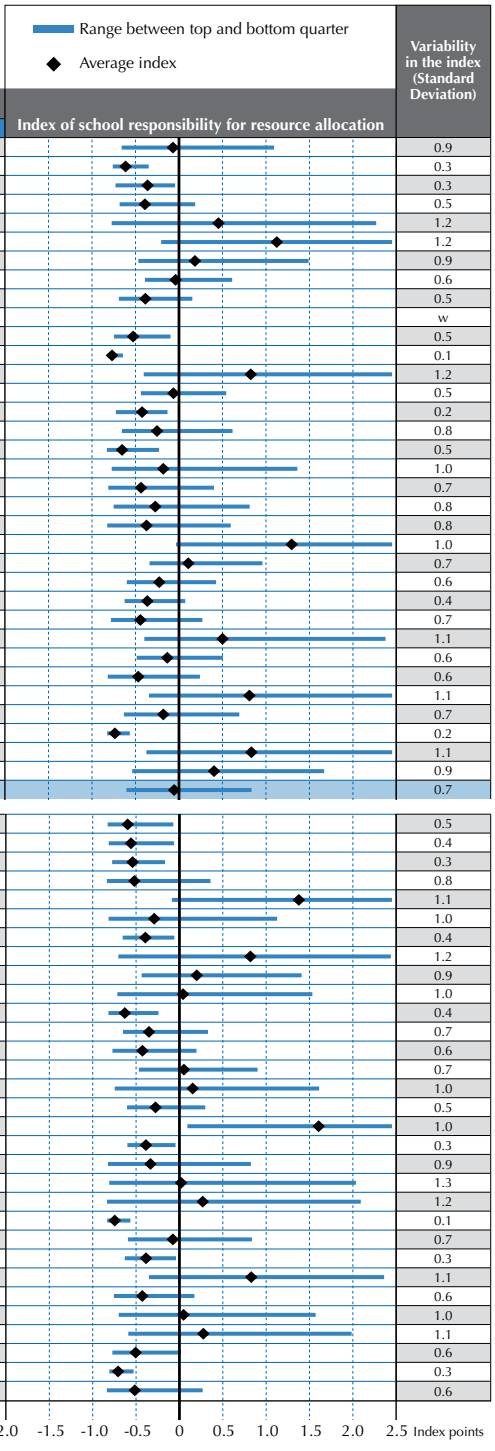
How much autonomy individual schools have over resource allocation

Percentage of students in schools whose principals reported that only "principals and/or teachers", only "regional and/or national education authority" or both "principals and/or teachers" and "regional and/or national education authority" have a considerable responsibility for the following tasks:

A Selecting teachers for hire
B Dismissing teachers
C Establishing teachers' starting salaries
D Determining teachers' salaries increases
E Formulating the school budget
F Deciding on budget allocations within the school

1 Only "principals and/or teachers"
2 Both "principals and/or teachers" and "regional and/or national education authority"
3 Only "regional and/or national education authority"

		A			B			C			D			E			F			Variability in the index (Standard Deviation)
		1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	
OECD	Australia	61	20	19	43	12	45	12	5	84	13	6	81	68	16	16	93	6	0	0.9
	Austria	13	35	52	5	26	68	1	0	99	1	0	99	11	9	80	84	12	4	0.3
	Belgium	75	13	12	63	21	17	0	1	99	0	1	99	56	18	26	63	19	17	0.3
	Canada	54	39	7	17	35	48	3	5	92	4	6	91	25	30	45	76	19	5	0.5
	Chile	69	8	23	59	3	38	37	1	62	37	1	62	55	9	36	71	9	20	1.2
	Czech Republic	100	0	0	99	1	0	77	15	8	65	25	11	55	36	9	75	24	1	1.2
	Denmark	97	2	0	69	15	16	20	10	70	16	14	70	80	13	8	98	2	0	0.9
	Estonia	98	2	0	95	5	0	7	20	73	12	33	55	37	54	9	85	15	1	0.6
	Finland	32	43	25	18	19	63	8	7	84	5	15	80	36	41	23	92	6	1	0.5
	France	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w
	Germany	29	36	34	7	14	79	3	0	97	4	15	81	29	4	67	97	2	2	0.5
	Greece	0	1	99	0	2	98	0	0	100	0	0	100	34	7	59	59	7	34	0.1
	Hungary	99	1	0	97	2	1	49	7	44	56	7	37	73	15	12	92	5	2	1.2
	Iceland	94	6	0	93	7	0	7	13	80	4	16	80	57	30	13	77	22	0	0.5
	Ireland	61	25	14	36	14	50	0	2	98	1	0	99	60	13	27	89	5	6	0.2
	Israel	67	30	3	49	38	13	9	4	87	13	6	80	15	26	59	66	24	11	0.8
	Italy	9	10	82	9	6	84	3	0	97	3	0	96	7	7	86	69	11	21	0.5
	Japan	25	2	73	22	1	77	13	0	87	16	3	80	28	4	69	89	3	8	1.0
	Korea	32	6	62	23	4	74	8	0	92	6	0	94	29	12	58	86	6	8	0.7
	Luxembourg	21	41	38	19	36	45	6	0	94	6	0	94	31	57	12	78	14	8	0.8
	Mexico	34	5	61	22	4	73	8	0	92	6	0	94	46	6	48	71	7	22	0.8
	Netherlands	100	0	0	99	1	0	72	8	20	55	12	33	99	1	0	100	0	0	1.0
	New Zealand	100	0	0	89	7	4	9	3	88	15	21	64	95	4	1	99	1	0	0.7
	Norway	72	21	6	44	22	34	8	4	88	6	13	81	55	28	17	88	12	1	0.6
	Poland	87	12	1	90	10	0	9	20	71	4	20	77	7	42	51	26	43	31	0.4
	Portugal	13	57	30	14	0	86	5	0	94	5	0	94	63	10	27	89	3	8	0.7
	Slovak Republic	98	2	0	98	2	0	39	27	34	32	33	35	45	40	15	70	27	3	1.1
	Slovenia	96	4	1	88	10	1	7	11	82	13	31	56	26	49	26	78	21	1	0.6
	Spain	31	3	66	32	1	67	3	2	95	3	2	95	63	4	33	93	4	3	0.6
	Sweden	96	4	0	63	17	20	57	16	27	69	22	9	64	20	16	93	5	2	1.1
	Switzerland	82	15	3	60	26	15	8	8	84	8	13	79	35	30	35	83	13	4	0.7
	Turkey	1	1	99	2	2	96	1	0	99	1	0	99	34	19	47	56	16	28	0.2
	United Kingdom	90	9	0	70	22	8	52	23	25	67	17	15	57	29	14	95	5	1	1.1
	United States	88	12	0	75	19	6	17	5	78	18	6	75	54	29	16	83	13	4	0.9
	OECD average	61	14	25	51	13	37	17	7	77	17	10	73	46	22	32	81	12	8	0.7
Partners	Albania	8	14	78	7	14	79	3	0	97	3	1	96	33	12	55	61	8	31	0.5
	Argentina	44	5	51	27	3	70	2	1	97	1	4	96	22	5	73	64	12	24	0.4
	Azerbaijan	40	22	38	61	17	22	35	6	59	13	3	84	5	6	89	20	4	76	0.3
	Brazil	17	7	76	14	8	78	8	1	91	7	1	92	14	5	80	21	6	73	0.8
	Bulgaria	93	5	2	97	2	1	66	20	14	84	12	4	73	22	5	92	7	1	1.1
	Colombia	21	5	75	21	1	78	14	0	86	13	1	86	58	5	36	87	5	8	1.0
	Croatia	90	10	0	84	11	5	1	1	98	2	1	97	26	34	40	68	23	9	0.4
	Dubai (UAE)	65	12	23	67	9	24	62	3	34	68	1	31	75	2	22	92	3	5	1.2
	Hong Kong-China	83	15	2	79	17	4	18	24	58	15	12	74	84	15	2	91	9	0	0.9
	Indonesia	29	12	59	26	11	63	20	9	70	23	11	66	83	11	5	78	14	8	1.0
	Jordan	6	1	93	4	1	95	1	1	98	2	0	98	83	1	17	70	2	28	0.4
	Kazakhstan	88	10	2	95	4	2	17	10	73	8	10	82	8	13	79	17	19	64	0.7
	Kyrgyzstan	74	14	11	68	13	19	18	4	77	13	3	84	12	7	81	19	7	74	0.6
	Latvia	94	4	2	96	4	0	10	15	75	18	25	57	62	25	12	81	16	3	0.7
	Liechtenstein	41	0	59	37	0	63	6	0	94	39	17	45	37	0	63	100	0	0	1.0
	Lithuania	96	4	0	99	1	0	11	7	81	6	8	86	25	27	48	42	29	28	0.5
	Macao-China	92	4	4	91	5	4	91	4	5	90	4	5	95	5	0	84	16	0	1.0
	Montenegro	89	11	0	82	18	0	0	5	95	10	11	78	12	21	68	65	22	13	0.3
	Panama	22	3	76	20	8	72	14	5	81	14	8	79	70	15	15	43	10	47	0.9
	Peru	38	15	47	30	9	61	22	2	76	22	2	77	60	9	31	79	6	15	1.3
	Qatar	52	3	44	54	5	41	47	3	50	47	4	50	43	4	53	52	4	44	1.2
	Romania	1	9	91	4	11	86	0	2	97	1	4	95	7	25	68	40	13	47	0.1
	Russian Federation	95	4	1	95	5	0	35	15	50	29	20	51	8	30	63	46	28	27	0.7
	Serbia	72	28	1	64	30	7	1	8	90	16	19	65	9	27	64	74	16	10	0.3
	Shanghai-China	98	2	0	99	1	0	36	5	59	43	6	51	91	2	6	98	1	1	1.1
	Singapore	14	38	48	14	24	62	4	3	93	7	17	75	49	22	29	91	8	1	0.6
	Chinese Taipei	73	13	14	74	14	12	18	7	75	23	7	70	50	13	37	78	8	14	1.0
	Thailand	30	20	50	59	12	28	29	14	56	72	24	5	70	20	10	90	7	2	1.1
	Trinidad and Tobago	17	14	69	6	4	90	2	1	96	6	5	89	46	28	26	75	12	12	0.6
	Tunisia	2	0	98	1	0	99	1	1	99	1	0	99	10	18	72	78	13	9	0.3
	Uruguay	17	5	78	13	1	86	3	1	96	2	1	96	13	12	75	49	16	35	0.6



Source: OECD, *PISA 2009 Database*, Table IV.3.5.

Figure 1.2

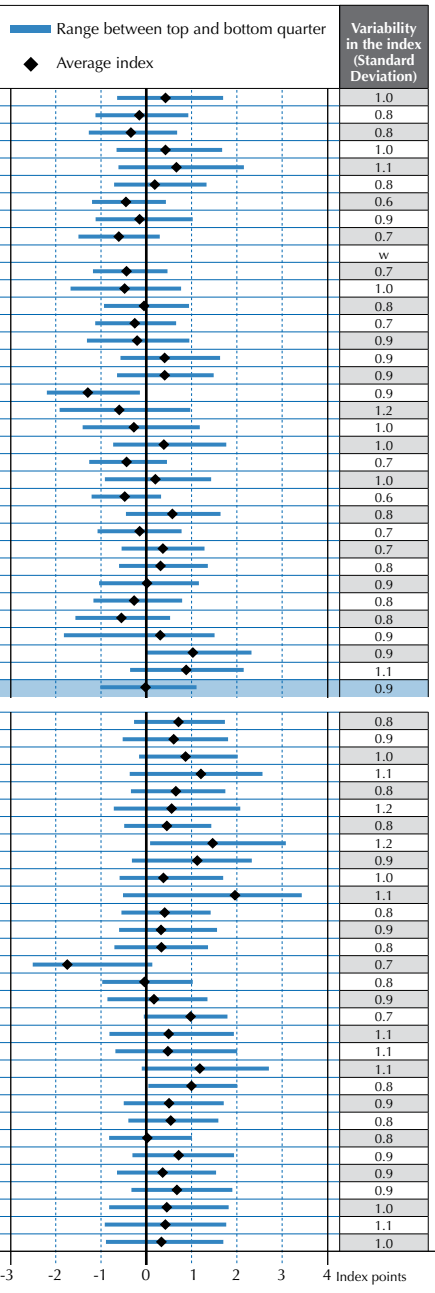
School principals' views of their involvement in school matters

Index of school principal's leadership based on school principals' reports

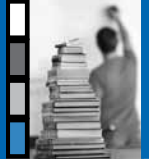
- A I make sure that the professional development activities of teachers are in accordance with the teaching goals of the school.
- B I ensure that teachers work according to the school's educational goals.
- C I observe instruction in classrooms.
- D I use student performance results to develop the school's educational goals.
- E I give teachers suggestions as to how they can improve their teaching.
- F I monitor students' work.
- G When a teacher has problems in his/her classroom, I take the initiative to discuss matters.
- H I inform teachers about possibilities for updating their knowledge and skills.
- I I check to see whether classroom activities are in keeping with our educational goals.
- J I take exam results into account in decisions regarding curriculum development.
- K I ensure that there is clarity concerning the responsibility for co-ordinating the curriculum.
- L When a teacher brings up a classroom problem, we solve the problem together.
- M I pay attention to disruptive behavior in classrooms.
- N I take over lessons from teachers who are unexpectedly absent.

Percentage of students in schools whose principals reported that the following activities and behaviors occurred "quite often" or "very often" during the last school year

		A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	Variability in the index (Standard Deviation)
OECD	Australia	98	99	64	93	76	58	89	95	81	81	97	93	94	32	1.0
	Austria	89	92	41	60	67	86	84	79	67	22	75	92	87	53	0.8
	Belgium	95	97	43	42	68	33	89	90	82	46	74	98	96	4	0.8
	Canada	98	98	77	91	86	60	95	95	86	63	87	99	98	19	1.0
	Chile	97	98	55	93	95	73	90	96	82	84	94	97	97	62	1.1
	Czech Republic	95	98	57	81	79	93	86	98	83	59	93	96	75	23	0.8
	Denmark	86	89	25	44	53	39	94	91	76	25	76	99	95	29	0.6
	Estonia	92	94	59	84	58	75	72	93	57	62	87	83	79	24	0.9
	Finland	64	75	9	46	40	61	77	95	59	13	77	98	94	39	0.7
	France	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w	w
	Germany	82	94	40	57	53	82	80	85	57	33	73	95	84	42	0.7
	Greece	40	78	12	61	53	46	97	96	67	34	69	98	96	63	1.0
	Hungary	93	99	54	84	62	84	89	91	65	73	86	94	91	41	0.8
	Iceland	88	89	39	78	77	69	87	96	54	58	87	100	75	26	0.7
	Ireland	88	88	14	64	41	50	88	92	62	78	88	97	97	39	0.9
	Israel	94	99	46	87	85	81	94	89	86	90	94	97	98	26	0.9
	Italy	97	99	39	86	75	87	96	98	88	77	92	98	98	18	0.9
	Japan	43	51	37	30	38	40	29	50	31	37	29	61	60	17	0.9
	Korea	80	85	42	64	68	56	75	69	60	46	63	79	68	7	1.2
	Luxembourg	87	98	32	65	52	64	96	67	74	32	47	98	98	23	1.0
	Mexico	95	97	68	94	89	90	95	91	92	62	90	97	96	43	1.0
	Netherlands	95	97	52	66	73	50	76	82	79	75	80	86	71	16	0.7
	New Zealand	99	98	68	98	73	42	78	84	74	87	97	83	94	12	1.0
	Norway	81	88	24	70	49	55	90	91	48	47	81	98	95	28	0.6
	Poland	94	97	93	95	89	96	91	99	92	71	80	97	93	37	0.8
	Portugal	93	97	9	94	65	49	91	89	48	82	97	99	97	7	0.7
	Slovak Republic	97	99	86	87	86	90	86	98	91	76	96	91	91	15	0.7
	Slovenia	99	100	77	78	85	90	90	95	85	65	93	98	94	23	0.8
	Spain	86	97	28	85	55	45	86	86	66	71	92	99	99	63	0.9
	Sweden	90	96	38	83	63	29	89	90	52	68	93	98	87	13	0.8
	Switzerland	72	82	64	34	60	61	85	80	59	17	54	92	83	31	0.8
	Turkey	85	95	70	93	85	90	75	90	87	78	93	97	99	36	0.9
	United Kingdom	100	100	93	100	92	88	90	96	95	97	99	96	97	29	0.9
	United States	98	98	95	96	94	72	95	97	94	88	90	97	96	16	1.1
	OECD average	88	93	50	75	69	66	86	89	72	61	82	94	90	29	0.9
Partners	Albania	97	100	98	99	94	94	90	88	93	87	93	96	96	47	0.8
	Argentina	95	98	63	90	96	84	94	91	86	66	87	98	96	43	0.9
	Azerbaijan	95	96	97	89	97	99	86	96	99	86	90	90	99	77	1.0
	Brazil	99	99	60	94	94	91	97	97	91	94	94	99	99	44	1.1
	Bulgaria	100	100	92	95	79	93	87	98	94	71	98	91	96	29	0.8
	Colombia	98	99	45	85	92	88	90	96	82	87	92	96	96	31	1.2
	Croatia	94	98	70	80	92	96	96	95	98	76	95	99	100	19	0.8
	Dubai (UAE)	100	100	95	97	98	93	98	99	98	90	93	98	97	39	1.2
	Hong Kong-China	99	99	99	97	100	93	96	98	95	92	97	96	96	45	0.9
	Indonesia	94	99	88	91	99	77	89	96	96	95	96	81	93	47	1.0
	Jordan	99	100	100	99	100	98	99	99	99	81	81	100	99	90	1.1
	Kazakhstan	96	98	98	95	97	97	85	98	99	60	87	86	89	17	0.8
	Kyrgyzstan	90	92	98	90	94	98	89	96	95	82	87	86	81	29	0.9
	Latvia	96	97	80	97	83	86	85	94	85	75	83	76	85	30	0.8
	Liechtenstein	53	21	3	15	14	46	82	16	10	0	13	96	58	44	0.7
	Lithuania	97	98	47	92	75	60	74	89	55	65	89	95	83	7	0.8
	Macao-China	100	100	88	74	82	86	93	76	86	52	88	90	90	45	0.9
	Montenegro	95	100	88	97	97	100	92	100	99	84	100	100	96	23	0.7
	Panama	91	95	86	88	95	84	90	92	95	85	88	97	94	43	1.1
	Peru	94	98	86	88	93	80	80	94	92	84	91	91	95	45	1.1
	Qatar	96	100	100	98	97	94	95	95	98	84	87	96	98	28	1.1
	Romania	98	100	87	98	90	90	96	98	99	91	99	100	99	40	0.8
	Russian Federation	99	99	92	89	87	95	80	99	97	55	97	96	86	31	0.9
	Serbia	97	100	67	90	91	82	97	99	87	93	91	97	97	44	0.8
	Shanghai-China	98	98	94	57	99	69	91	93	96	70	98	99	89	14	0.8
	Singapore	100	100	80	99	94	66	93	93	93	98	98	97	96	8	0.9
	Chinese Taipei	98	98	92	84	86	94	86	98	88	90	95	97	95	20	0.9
	Thailand	94	99	88	98	95	97	94	98	94	96	98	97	97	45	0.9
	Trinidad and Tobago	97	98	60	86	88	71	94	95	84	92	95	97	98	26	1.0
	Tunisia	84	97	92	92	97	60	97	82	84	40	59	99	99	45	1.1
	Uruguay	85	98	89	90	90	81	92	94	84	45	73	98	100	25	1.0



Note: Higher values on the index indicate greater involvement of school principals in educational issues.
Source: OECD, *PISA 2009 Database*, Table IV.4.8.



Among OECD countries, 93% of students attend schools whose leaders reported that he or she ensures that teachers' work reflects the school's educational goals "quite often" or "very often"; over 86% of students attend schools whose leader "quite often" or "very often" takes the initiative to discuss a problem teachers may have in their classrooms; half of students attend schools whose leader "quite often" or "very often" observes classes; 61% of students attend schools whose leader "quite often" or "very often" considers exam results when making decisions regarding curriculum development; and over a quarter of OECD students attend schools whose leaders "quite often" or "very often" take over lessons from teachers who are unexpectedly absent. Variation in the role of school leaders within the school system is greatest in Chile, Korea and the United States; the role of school leaders is relatively more homogeneous across schools in Denmark and Norway.

Studies in some OECD countries have shown how school leaders are affected by the growing demands on their time. In England, 61% of head teachers described their work-life balance as poor or very poor.[3] Some have attributed this to long working hours or to deficiencies in working practices, such as school heads not knowing how to prioritize or delegate their work. In New Zealand, a study found that, eight years after major education reforms were introduced, school leaders' administrative work had increased substantially and they were working ten hours longer per week, on average, than before the reforms. This and other research finds that administrative demands are taking up 34% of school leaders' time, clearly competing with educational leadership as their top priority.[4]

SUPPORTING, EVALUATING AND DEVELOPING TEACHER QUALITY

The OECD's comparative review of school leadership[5] identifies a focus on supporting, evaluating and developing teacher quality as the core of effective leadership. This includes co-coordinating the curriculum and teaching program, monitoring and evaluating teaching practice, promoting teachers' professional development, and supporting collaborative work cultures. In Sweden, for example, school leaders often spend much of their time giving feedback to teachers about their work. They also tend to frequently challenge the assumptions of their staff. By asking questions such as "How do we know that?", "Could we test another way of doing it?" and "What do we know about how people in other schools do it?" they help to foster a learning atmosphere in the school.

The OECD's comparative review of school leadership finds that teacher monitoring and evaluation are increasingly important responsibilities of school leaders. In general, regular teacher evaluations involve the school leader and other senior school staff; but in countries such as France and Belgium, they also involve a panel with members from outside the school. While the nature and consequences of teacher evaluation vary widely across countries, there are now formal provisions for teacher evaluation in the majority of the countries studied. The form, rigor, content and consequences of evaluation vary greatly across countries – and sometimes within them. In most countries where teacher evaluation is carried out, it is conducted as a part of a larger quality review or school-improvement process. The purposes of evaluation are relatively evenly distributed among formative evaluation, performance appraisal, professional-development planning and support for promotion.

The criteria for evaluations differ, sometimes involving an assessment of teaching performance, in-service training and, in some cases, measures of student performance. Classroom observation, interviews and documentation prepared by teachers are the typical methods used in the evaluations. In the OECD leadership study, the weight given to the school leaders' observations or monitoring varies among participating countries from considerable (Slovenia) to slight (Chile, where the input counts for only 10% of the total). School leaders can rely almost exclusively on their observations (Slovenia) or on a wide range of other data, such as reviewing teaching plans, observing meetings, reviewing communications with parents, pupil performance data, peer review and teacher self-evaluations, among others (such data is used, for example, in Denmark, England, Korea, New Zealand and Scotland). The frequency of observations ranges from as often as three to six times per year in England to once every four years in Chile, with several countries settling on annual observations. Where teacher evaluation is conducted, it almost always entails some form of annual formal meeting between leader and teacher.

PISA shows that, on average across OECD countries, 61% of 15-year-olds are in schools where the practices of mathematics teachers were monitored over the preceding year through school leader or senior staff observations. Student achievement on PISA tended to be higher when teachers were held accountable through the involvement of school leaders and external inspectors in monitoring lessons.

The OECD's comparative review of school leadership also finds that school leadership plays a vital role in promoting professional learning and development for teachers. There have always been different types of professional-development activities, but the perception of their relative effectiveness has changed over the years.

School-based professional development activities involving the entire staff or significant groups of teachers are becoming more common, while teacher-initiated personal development is becoming less so, at least in terms of programs supported through public funds. Most countries now link professional development to the developmental priorities of the school and co-ordinate in-service training in the school accordingly. School leaders and, in some cases, local school authorities play an important role in planning professional-development activities. Some countries, including England, are also ensuring that teachers identify their own professional-development needs.

Last but not least, supporting collaborative work cultures is an increasingly important and recognized responsibility of school leaders. Some OECD countries, and in particular Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden, have more of a history of teamwork and co-operation among their teaching staff, especially in primary schools. Others, such as Ireland, are shifting to encourage such practice. When surveyed, school leaders in Finland spoke enthusiastically about the benefits of collaboration. Sharing resources and ideas helped them to face the many demands on their time and energy, and mutual support helped them to cope with difficulties. One of the heads "loves data", another "hates it" and leaned on her colleague for help with statistics. In exchange, she offered expertise in workforce development.

GOAL-SETTING, ASSESSMENT AND ACCOUNTABILITY

Aligning instruction with external standards, setting school goals for student performance, measuring progress against those goals and making adjustments in the school program to improve performance were identified as other important aspects of school leadership.

While most countries establish a core curriculum or curriculum framework at national or state level, it is usually up to school leaders to implement curricula and instruction effectively. PISA shows that, on average across OECD countries, more than half of 15-year-olds are in schools where school-level stakeholders have the responsibility to decide which courses are offered, and more than 40% of students are in schools that determine course content. School leaders generally have a degree of discretion in how they design curriculum content and sequencing, organize teaching and instructional resources, and monitor quality. As noted before, PISA data suggest that in countries where school leaders reported higher degrees of responsibility, performance tended to be better, even if that relationship can be affected by many other factors.

School leaders also played a key role in integrating external and internal accountability systems by supporting their teaching staff in aligning instruction with agreed learning goals and performance standards. For example, a group of schools reviewed in England used data as a vehicle to engage the leadership team and teachers in school improvement, and used student-outcome information to develop strategies for learning for individual students and classrooms. Information was reviewed every six weeks. Data was analyzed at the individual and classroom levels, providing an overview of where problems lay. Intervention teams then stepped in to look into potential underperformance and respond to challenges.

Most countries also have a long tradition of school inspections where leaders are held accountable for their use of public funding and for the structures and processes they establish. Most OECD countries report that they have or are developing some form of national goals, objectives, or standards of student performance. To assess these, accountability frameworks tend to rely on both school and student information.

To evaluate school performance, two-thirds of OECD countries have regulations that require lower secondary schools to be inspected regularly; a slightly smaller number of countries have regulatory requirements for schools to conduct periodic school self-evaluations. In around three-quarters of OECD countries, these school inspections and school self-evaluations also have a high level of influence on the evaluation of school administration and individual teachers. In more than half of all OECD countries, school inspections are also used to make decisions about whether or not to close schools.

In two-thirds of OECD countries, periodic standardized assessments of students in compulsory education are conducted to obtain information on student performance. In slightly fewer than half of all OECD countries, national examinations have a real impact on lower secondary school students, such as allowing them to proceed to a higher level of education. Only a few countries, including Belgium (Flemish Community), Chile and the Czech Republic reported that school inspections influenced decisions about providing financial rewards or sanctions.

STRATEGIC RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

The strategic use of resources and their alignment with pedagogical purposes can help to focus school activities on the objective of improving teaching and learning. However, where devolution has put greater discretion for maintenance, repair and substantial capital projects in the hands of school leaders, they are often asked to fulfill responsibilities that call for expertise many do not have. Even where such tasks are the responsibility of the governing board, they are often formally or informally delegated to the school leader.

PISA shows that, on average across OECD countries, 84% of 15-year-old students are enrolled in schools that have full autonomy in deciding how their budgets are spent, and 57% are in schools that are fully autonomous in formulating their budgets. However, PISA also shows that school leaders only have a modest role in setting teachers' salaries or awarding salary increases, which somewhat undercuts the notion that school leaders enjoy great discretion in budgetary matters. Across countries, fewer than 60% of students are enrolled in schools that have the authority to hire teachers, and half are in schools with the authority to dismiss teachers. Moreover, the lack of transparent and accepted procedures for dealing with ineffective teachers can mean that those teachers may remain in their posts, often without being offered any professional development assistance, with all the adverse consequences this has for student learning, the reputation of schools and the teaching profession.

School leaders who have the responsibility, whether formal or informal, for managing resources should be trained so that they can effectively align resources with pedagogical purposes. The OECD's comparative review of school leadership found that the capacity of school leaders to shift financial and human resources strategically is often limited by a lack of training in the field. School leaders often reported having to engage in operational delivery issues and put aside the strategic planning that is necessary to provide an overarching vision and allocate resources.

LEADERSHIP BEYOND SCHOOL WALLS

The OECD's comparative review of school leadership suggests that an important role for school leaders is that of collaborating with other schools or communities around them. Schools and their leaders strengthen collaboration, form networks, share resources, and/or work together. These engagements enlarge the scope of leadership beyond the school to the welfare of young people in the city, town or region. They can also nurture a culture where improving school leadership is accomplished across communities, to the benefit of all concerned. For example, in some Finnish municipalities, school leaders also work as school district leaders, with one-third of their time devoted to the district and two-thirds to their own schools. Management and supervision are shared, as are evaluation and development of education planning. The aim is to align schools and municipalities to think systemically in order to promote a common vision of schooling and a united school system.

At the same time, experience in these municipalities also shows that for school leaders to be able to take on this larger system-level role, leadership at the school level must be better distributed, so that deputy heads and leadership teams can assume some of the school leaders' tasks when he or she is taking on larger roles. Overall, the study suggests that leaders' collaboration with other schools and with the local community can help to improve problem-solving through intensified processes of interaction, communication and collective learning. It can also help to develop leadership capacity and address succession and stability issues by increasing the density of and opportunities for local leadership in the school and at the local level.

Figure 1.3

How selected countries have defined school leaders

Leadership Academy, Austria	Ontario School Leadership Framework	National Professional Qualification for Headteachers, England
• Strategic leadership • Instructional leadership • Human resource management • Organizational development • Change management • Aspects of lifelong learning • Administrative	• Setting direction • Building relationships and developing people • Developing the organization • Leading the instructional program • Securing accountability	• Shaping the future (strategically) • Leading learning and teaching • Developing self and others • Managing the school • Securing accountability • Strengthening community

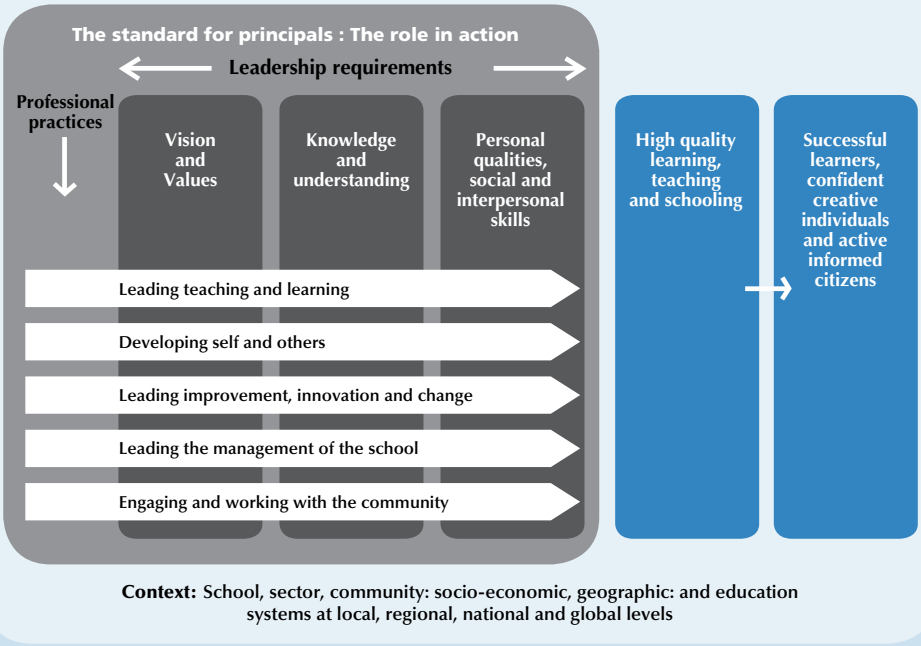
Figure 1.3 shows how a few countries have defined the roles of school leaders and Box 1.2 describes one of them, Australia, in more detail.

Box 1.2 Australia's approach to school leadership and its National Professional Standard for Principals

The Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership was created in 2010 to promote excellence in the teaching and school leadership profession. A public, independent institution supported by the Ministry of Education, its role is to develop and maintain national professional standards for teaching and school leadership, implement an agreed system of national accreditation of teachers based on those standards, and foster high-quality professional development for teachers and school leaders.

The National Professional Standard for Principals, introduced in July 2011, is based on three requirements for leadership: vision and values; knowledge and comprehension; and personal qualities and social and communication skills. These are made manifest in five areas of professional practice: leading teaching-learning processes; developing self and others; leading improvement, innovation and change; leading school management; and engaging and working with the community.

Excellence in school leadership



Source: Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (2011).

DISTRIBUTING LEADERSHIP

As greater responsibility and accountability is demanded of school leaders, leadership needs to be distributed effectively within and across schools. School leaders need to develop a network and share their tasks with vice-principals or co-principals, deputy principals, assistant principals, vocational/technical department heads, workshop managers and/or co-coordinators and teachers with special duties. Leadership structures or more informal *ad hoc* groups based on expertise and current needs can be formed to encourage a distribution of power among these actors.

Hallinger and Heck have concluded that 'collaborative leadership, as opposed to leadership from the principal alone, may offer a path to school improvement."[6] There is also emerging evidence of the impact of teacher leadership on teacher self-efficacy where teachers are encouraged within their schools and within education systems to show leadership in relation to such areas as pedagogy, the curriculum and its assessment, evaluation and student behavior.[7] There is also debate about the nature of standards which could be used to define collaborative leadership. One such example is the work of the Teacher Leadership Exploratory Consortium in the United States, involving higher education institutions and teacher unions, which has published a set of teacher leader model standards for use by the teaching profession itself. Last but not least, education unions are increasingly engaged in encouraging teachers to take the lead in their own learning.[8]

In Norway, some schools have a three-person school leader group: one responsible for pedagogy, one for personnel matters and one for finance. In Portugal, schools tend to be grouped together with a collective management structure such that school leaders are regarded as co-coordinators of their schools with teaching responsibility; they have little decision-making power. In the Netherlands, which has a decentralized education system, the role of school leaders varies among schools, which are free to distribute tasks and functions to several leaders. In Scotland, the devolved government introduced a distributed-leadership arrangement among school leaders, deputy-head teachers and teacher leaders under the new standards for school leaders, *A Teaching Profession for the 21st Century*.[9]

In a distributed-leadership arrangement, principals and other actors, with different responsibilities, can play a role in school development and improvement:

- *Principals, vice-, deputy and assistant school leaders* : In Korea, the role of vice-principal and the scope of his or her authority are flexible, depending on the school leader's leadership style. In secondary education in France, the school leader is supported by a leadership team that includes one or several deputy principals, an administrative manager and one or more educational counselors. In certain cases, such as in the Flemish Community of Belgium and Korea, the number of vice-principals might depend on the number of students, and they might be responsible for some specific area of administration, such as student discipline or curriculum co-ordination.
- *Teacher leaders* also assume a formal role and responsibilities for managing and leading in schools. In Australia, teacher leaders are responsible for teams, year levels, or curriculum areas. New Zealand designates senior practitioners for grade clusters, curriculum leaders and specialist classroom teachers. In Korea, chief teachers handle mid-level supervisory duties; while in Spain, teachers with a reduced workload assume the role of leadership assistants to free school leaders from some administrative tasks.
- *School boards*, which are generally composed of teachers, members of the community, parents and students, also play a role in distributing school leadership. In the Flemish Community of Belgium school boards have a high degree of responsibility over schools and school resources; while in Hungary, Korea, Portugal and Spain, they are largely advisory bodies. In the Netherlands and Scotland, the roles of the school boards are defined by the local community or by the schools.

DEVELOPING LEADERSHIP FOR TOMORROW'S EDUCATION SYSTEMS

How have countries succeeded in developing effective school leaders at scale? The OECD's study of innovative leadership development programs[10] found that the more effective ones:

- prepare and develop school leaders using innovative approaches that address the broader roles and responsibilities of leaders and the purposes of schooling, and that use core technologies to achieve intended outcomes;
- are designed to produce leaders who work to build student-centered schools with the capacity for high performance and continuous improvement towards that end; and
- take a system-wide perspective, so that the programs are aligned with the larger goals and processes of the system concerning school improvement, student performance, and enhanced efficiency and effectiveness.

Effective leadership-development programs often also include networking among participants, which can help to foster collaborative problem-solving and alleviate the sense of isolation that some school leaders feel. Based on studies of what works for teachers' professional development, coaching and mentoring could also have a place in these programs.[11] Through mentoring, newly appointed school leaders have access to the counsel and advice of those with years of experience in leading schools.

While many of the studies suggest that leadership-development programs influence student achievement only indirectly, they do show that school leaders who participate in such programs change practices within the school that ultimately lead to better teaching and learning outcomes. The Stanford Educational Leadership Institute,[12] for example, found that directors who participate in "exemplary programs" (see Box 1.3) are better prepared and are more consistent in their use of effective practices in school.

Box 1.3 Characteristics of leadership-development "exemplary programs"

All of the initial training programs categorized as "exemplary" by the Stanford Educational Leadership Institute share the following characteristics:

- a comprehensive and coherent curriculum aligned with state and professional standards, particularly the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium standards, which emphasize instructional leadership;
- a philosophy and curriculum emphasizing instructional leadership and school improvement;
- active, student-centered instruction that integrates theory and practice and stimulates reflection. Instructional strategies include problem-based learning; action research; field-based projects; journal writing; and portfolios that feature substantial use of feedback and assessment by peers, faculty, and the candidates themselves;
- faculty who are knowledgeable in their subject areas, including both university professors and practitioners experienced in school administration;
- social and professional support in the form of a cohort structure and formalized mentoring and advising by expert principals;
- vigorous, targeted recruitment and selection to seek out expert teachers with leadership potential; and
- well-designed and supervised administrative internships that allow candidates to engage in leadership responsibilities for substantial periods of time under the tutelage of expert veterans.

Source: Darling-Hammond, et al. (2007).

Box 1.4 Cultivating school leadership in the United States

Founded in 2000 by a team of social entrepreneurs, New Leaders (formerly "New Leaders for New Schools") is a national non-profit organization that develops school leaders and designs leadership policies and practices for school systems across the United States. In its first decade, New Leaders trained almost 800 leaders in 12 urban areas through its Aspiring Principals Program, affecting a quarter of a million students in high-need schools across the country. New Leaders was the first principal-training program to track and measure its success based on the student-achievement results of its graduates. It is the only national principal-training program that prepares leaders for both district and charter schools.

The goal of New Leaders is to improve student achievement by recruiting, selecting, training and supporting outstanding school leaders while also working with partner school systems to create the conditions that will enable these leaders to succeed once on the job. To achieve this goal, New Leaders:

Attracts high-quality candidates. The Emerging Leaders Program provides free, high-quality professional development for successful teachers and assistant principals interested in improving their leadership skills and possibly becoming a principal. The idea is to create a pathway to school leadership for effective teachers and other top instructors who may not have considered the job.

...

Selects carefully. Both the Emerging Leaders Program and the Aspiring Principals Program have highly selective processes for admission. For both programs, New Leaders looks for candidates who believe in the potential of every child, and have strong instructional knowledge, a track record of improved learning outcomes, and adult leadership potential.

Trains for what matters most. After selecting the most promising candidates, the Aspiring Principals Program provides future leaders with coursework combined with a full-time residency year in a high-need school. Local staff create an individualized learning plan for each resident.

Fosters a supportive network. New Leaders partners with school systems that have similar priorities in order to build a network of leaders. Working with these systems, the organization designs and puts in place principal-performance standards and evaluations systems, and defines the roles and provides support and training for principal managers.

In 2011, New Leader schools were among the top 10 highest-gaining schools in eight U.S. cities.

Several school systems have adopted elements of the New Leaders' model in developing their own principal-training programs, and more plan to do so in the near future. In addition, New Leaders works to influence key decision makers and public education policies in order to improve school leadership and promote educational excellence at scale.

THE URBAN EXCELLENCE FRAMEWORK™ (UEF)

In 2007, New Leaders created the Urban Excellence Framework™ (UEF) to articulate what leaders in successful schools do to improve student achievement. The UEF now informs the organization's leadership training programs and recommendations to system partners. The UEF was developed based on more than 100 visits to and case studies of schools that achieved dramatic gains; an extensive review of the available research on the practices of effective schools and leadership; and the collective knowledge of the New Leaders staff and participants.

Source: New Leaders, website: *www.newleaders.org*.

There are many examples illustrating the efforts countries are investing in this (see Box 1.4 for one example from the United States). Leadership programs can have a substantial impact on how schools work and on the quality of the school. A longitudinal study of 35 schools in Sweden[13] shows that such training led to more collaborative work among teachers. In England, research on the impact of leadership-development programs shows that schools whose leader participated in the National College for School Leadership's development program improved more quickly than others. Assessment outcomes of 16-year-old students in schools that had engaged in the program improved by 8.1% between 2005 and 2009, compared with a 5.8% improvement in schools that had not engaged. Similarly, 43% of schools with a leader who had been certified with a National Professional Qualification for Headship showed an improvement in their overall performance rating between 2005 and 2008, compared with only 37% of non-NPQH-led schools. A study[14] with data from the United States found that better-trained school leaders recruit, select and retrain teachers with stronger academic backgrounds, especially in schools in low-income areas, which leads to better student outcomes.

Selecting suitable candidates

Many countries rely on self-selection to fill enrolments in training and development programs. While this approach rewards initiative, it can be inefficient. Self-selected candidates may or may not be the best qualified. In countries where additional training implies higher salaries, the incentive to attend such programs may be less the leadership role than the possibility of earning a raise in pay. Self-selection also does not address a school's or a jurisdiction's specific needs for succession planning. Other countries, such as Singapore, use a planning model, continuously assessing teachers for different leadership positions and providing them with the opportunity for training (see Box 1.5).

Box 1.5 Selecting and training school leaders in Singapore

To ensure that Singapore has the best school leaders, young teachers are continuously assessed for their leadership potential and are given the opportunity to develop their leadership capacity. Future school leaders are chosen from successful teachers already in the education system. Moreover, all education leadership positions are part of the teaching-career structure. Potential school leaders can serve on committees, be promoted to middle-level leadership positions (e.g. head of department), and be transferred to the ministry for a period.

Successful potential school leaders are selected to attend the Management and Leadership in Schools program at Singapore's National Institute for Education, based on interviews and leadership-situation exercises. Once accepted, aspiring school leaders can attend the four-month executive leadership training. Potential vice principals attend a six-month Leaders in Education program. Candidates in both programs are paid during their training. Only 35 people are selected for the executive leadership training each year.

More experienced school leaders mentor recently appointed leaders; and principals are periodically transferred among schools as part of Singapore's continuous improvement strategy. Experienced school leaders are offered the opportunity to become Cluster Superintendants, which is the first step toward a system-level leadership role.

Source: Mourshed M., C. Chijioke and M. Barber (2010); OECD (2011a).

To respond to shortages or a lack of qualified candidates, some institutions that provide development training screen potential candidates for leadership. Another approach to pre-screening and selecting candidates is to provide short "taster" courses for those who may be interested in leadership (see Box 1.6).

Box 1.6 Sampling school leadership in Denmark and the Netherlands

Denmark is introducing a "taster" course for aspiring school leaders. Danish teachers who may want to have a leadership position can begin to understand the different components of becoming a school leader through a "taster" course offered by local school districts or municipalities. Participants take part in one or more modules of a Leadership Diploma of Education. The course consists of theoretical assignments, case studies, personal reflections, discussions with a mentor about career opportunities, personal strengths and areas for development, and networking. Participants must also conduct a project in their own school. Those who want to continue can attend a two-year Diploma in Leadership course that includes seminars on economy, personal leadership, coaching, strategy implementation, change-management and problem-solving. The program is managed by School Leadership Development, but is organized by the Local Government Training and Development Denmark, which is the center for training and development for all of the country's municipalities and regions.

In **the Netherlands**, training institutes offer orientation courses to allow teachers interested in leadership functions to discover whether they have the required capabilities. For example, *Orientation towards Management* is a brief training program offered by the Association of School Leaders for the Sectoral Board for the Education Labour Market (a fund of employers and employee organizations in the education sector). School boards, upper-school managers and school leaders are asked to select candidates from their own schools. After participating in a two-day training course on various leadership topics, candidates draw up a personal development plan based on a competence analysis. *Orientation towards Management* then offers further training for candidates who are interested and suitable.

Source: Moos L. (2011).

The availability of training

Until recently, most education systems did not demand that school leaders have a specific leadership qualification (see Figure A.21 in the Annex). In some countries, while having a qualification is not mandatory, it may be actively encouraged. For example, in Finland, school leaders are encouraged to have a Certificate in Educational Administration or sufficient knowledge of education administration before applying for a leadership post. Until recently, the only formal requirement for school leaders in Australia was a four-year teaching qualification.[15] Since 2006, however, a national program for school leaders has been available. In Japan, current education reforms include the establishment of graduate schools with teacher-training programs that are also for school leaders. These programs equip leaders with pedagogical theory and practical skills to help them improve teaching in their schools. In England, new school leaders can obtain a National Qualification for Professional Headship awarded by the National College for School Leadership.

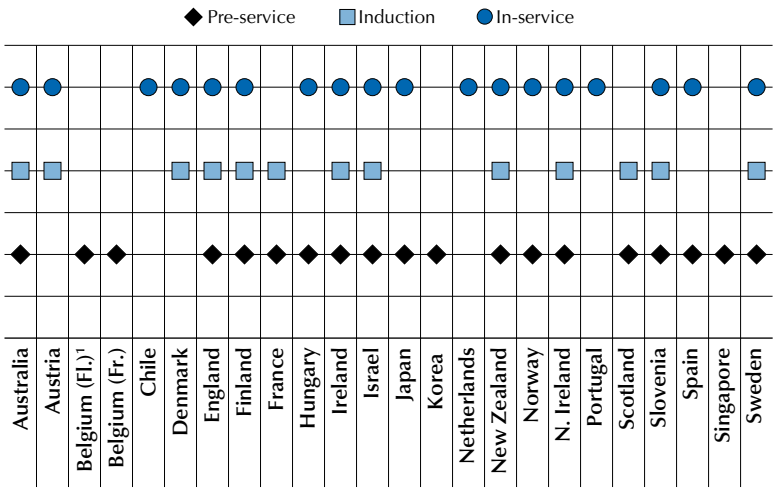
Despite the availability of training, school leaders across OECD countries have often reported that they felt they had not been adequately trained to assume their posts. Although most candidates for school-leadership positions have a teaching background, they are not necessarily competent in pedagogical innovation or in managing financial or human resources. Much of the gap between the skills candidates bring to the position of leader and the skills required of them once they're in the post can be filled once the role and responsibilities of school leader are clearly defined and specific training in those skills is made available to them.

Types of training

Experts in leadership and development argue that school leaders' "professional development activities should be ongoing, career-staged and seamless".[16]

Figure 1.4

Leadership development in selected countries



1. Belgium (Fl.): Only community schools.
Source: Updated from Pont, Nusche and Moorman (2008a).

England, Ontario (Canada), Ireland, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Victoria (Australia) all have relatively comprehensive training that include pre-service qualification programs, induction programs to support the initial phase as leader, and in-service training programs for established school leaders. Victoria and Ontario have integrated these comprehensive training programs into their national strategies to improve schools. Most of these approaches were designed and are led by a leading institution, such as England's National College for School Leadership, the Regional Training Unit in Northern Ireland or the Department for Education in Victoria (Australia). In England, a leadership-development strategy establishes five stages of school leadership. Each has a range of related development opportunities based on preparatory, induction and further training for school leaders. In Northern Ireland, there is training for emergent and aspirant leaders as well as serving leaders and managers. The Scottish approach is described in Box 1.7.

Among the countries with comprehensive programs, program participants, schools, central or regional authorities provide the financial support for the programs. Participants and other agencies might share the cost of the program or subsidies might be granted, as in England. Incentives for participating in training should be offered.

Box 1.7 Leadership development in Scotland

Scotland has two national training programs for aspiring headteachers both of which are accredited against the Standard for Headship. The Standard for Headship defines the professional actions required of effective headteachers. These training programs will result in successful participants being awarded the Standard for Headship. These training programs are not mandatory. However, we expect local authorities, who appoint headteachers, to ensure that those teachers appointed to their first headteacher posts meet the Standard for Headship. This can be done through the formal national routes or by other local interview and assessment procedures. There is no national induction program for new school leaders. Each local authority will have their own arrangements which can include coaching and mentoring support. In 2003, it introduced a new framework for leadership development that includes learning opportunities for those involved in leadership teams as well as more senior staff. *Continuing Professional Development for Educational Leaders* is based on the notion of professional progression in education leadership through four broad areas:

- **Project Leadership,** for teachers who have, or may take on, responsibility for leading a small-scale project. This refers to teachers possibly quite early in their careers, who wish to develop their leadership skills, for instance in an area related to curriculum development or supporting pupils' learning, or through a small school-based research project.
- **Team leadership**, for teachers who, in addition to leading small-scale projects, have regular responsibility for leading either permanent teams of staff or task groups/working parties. This might be particularly relevant to aspiring and established principal teachers, whether their responsibilities are primarily in the areas of curriculum or of guidance.
- **School leadership**, for staff who lead projects and teams and who have, or are seeking, overall responsibility for an aspect of leadership across an establishment. This might include teachers or principal teachers who aspire to membership of a senior leadership team and established members of such teams. Some members of senior leadership teams will aspire to become school heads.
- **Strategic leadership**, for staff who, in addition to project, team and school-leadership responsibilities, have overall responsibility for leading an establishment or are leading strategic initiatives at the local or national level. This is particularly relevant to head teachers and to those working in the education service who have a strategic role in improving Scottish education.

Source: Scottish Executive Education Department (2007).

Training for school leaders is particularly important in countries where schools and school leaders have a high degree of autonomy. New Zealand, which has a highly decentralized school system, established four development initiatives for school leaders: an induction program for first-time school leaders; an electronic network for sitting school leaders (LeadSpace); development centers for school leaders (Principals' Development Planning Centre); and guidelines on professional development for school leaders.[17]

Initial training

Many countries offer pre-service leadership-preparation programs that often lead to a university degree or specialized qualification (see Box 1.8). The education ministries in France and Korea offer such programs to groups of pre-selected candidates who will become school leaders after the training. Other countries' programs are offered in partnership with universities, local municipalities or other providers. Spain recently made participation in such programs mandatory, but the country's regional governments are responsible for providing the training.

There is some debate about whether initial training should be mandatory. Those in favor argue that it can be seen as a way of professionalizing school leadership. It can also help to align programs with national goals and priorities. Those against say that mandatory training often does not encourage flexibility and innovation, that such development is more effective when initiated by the individual and not imposed by legislation, and that local and regional authorities, rather than national authorities, may be better placed to determine the training needs of school leaders.

Box 1.8 Leadership-preparation programs in Finland and Norway

Finland started a program in 2010 in 76 education networks to re-design the country's school leadership-development model. The main objective of the program is to give greater responsibility to schools to implement staff-development activities that meet the individual or organizational needs of the school and its personnel. It also empowers teachers to create and implement their own professional-development program. The program initially targeted school leaders, teaching staff over 55 years of age, and persons who had not participated in professional-development activities in recent years. The program encourages collaboration and the use of innovative learning methods and institutionalizes professional development within the school.

In 2009, **Norway**'s central authorities introduced a new two-year program to develop instructional leadership skills for school principals. The program covers student learning outcomes and environment; management and administration; collaboration and organization; guidance for teachers; development and change; and leadership identity. It was initially offered to new school principals with less than two years of experience, and will eventually be offered to more experienced school leaders as well.

Source: Hamalainen K., K. Hamalainen and J. Kangasniemi (2011); OECD (2011b).

Induction programs

Many countries provide leadership training for newly appointed school leaders, however most of these programs are optional. By targeting new school leaders, these programs can help to shape initial school-leadership practices and build networks through which the leaders can share their concerns. They should provide a combination of theoretical and practical knowledge and self-study, and should be designed to cohere with the broader development framework.

In the United States, more than half of the 50 states now require that new school leaders receive some form of induction support. In Australia and Hungary, induction programs are short courses organized by local authorities to introduce school leaders to their surroundings. In Denmark, the courses may run to about a month, but in other countries, they may run from one to three years.

Ireland launched an induction program for newly appointed school leaders in 2001. *Misneach* (Gaelic for "courage") focuses on managing self, leading learning, leading the organization and leading people. Only 18% of those who attended the program felt that they had been well-prepared to assume their role as school leader before they participated in the training.[18]

In-service training

In-service training can respond to specific needs. As such, it should be available periodically for school leaders and leadership teams to allow them to update their skills and/or share new practices. Australia, Austria, Chile, England, Finland, Ireland, New Zealand, Northern Ireland, Slovenia and Sweden provide systematic in-service training programs for school leaders. In Finland, the minimum annual requirement for development training is three days; in Hungary, it is 120 hours every seven years. In Scotland, to ensure that school leaders and teachers undertake in-service training, they must participate in an additional 35 hours of training per year, and teachers must maintain a record of their professional development activities. But in most places, there are no requirements.

In-service training covers a range of different aspects of school management and education leadership; it can also focus on new national requirements. For example, Austria's Leadership Academy was established to provide school leaders, who had just acquired greater autonomy, but had little experience operating outside a hierarchical, bureaucratic structure, with the capacity to act more independently, take more initiative, and help their schools navigate though government reforms. Inspectors, the staff of in-service training institutes, executives from the Ministry of Education and provincial education authorities were invited to participate.

Countries offer course-based training, group training, self-study and other arrangements. Professional networks can also be used to develop school leaders and leadership teams informally. In Australia, England, New Zealand and Northern Ireland, for example, virtual networks help school leaders to share best practices.

APPRAISAL OF SCHOOL LEADERS

Appraising the performance of school leaders can help to improve practice. Most OECD countries evaluate school leaders through systematic performance-appraisal processes. Denmark's performance-appraisal system for primary schools is under the discretion of the municipality; but for secondary schools, it is defined by a results-based contract. Rewards for good performance are determined by the municipality, and leaders in secondary schools can receive a monetary reward. In Ireland, appraisals are conducted by the Inspectorate, which bases them on predefined school objectives. If schools are underperforming, further evaluations are conducted. In Slovenia, the annual performance appraisal is conducted at the discretion of the school governing board, and achievement criteria are predetermined by the school program. Under-performance or under-achievement are reflected in the school leader's salary. Austria, the French Community of Belgium and Finland do not conduct systematic performance appraisals. In England, Northern Ireland and Scotland, performance data is used to track and monitor student progress and guide ongoing improvement, although Northern Ireland notes that internal-assessment data are not used enough to review students' progress over time or to modify classroom practice and improve the quality of students' work. In Scotland, the HM Inspectorate of Education works alongside Learning and Teaching Scotland, which develops guidelines for the national curriculum, to promote improvement in standards, quality and achievement for all students. It does so through annual inspections that evaluate the quality of pre-school, school and teacher education, community learning and development, and further education.[19]

For accountability systems to lead to improvements, they need to focus on information relevant to teaching and learning, motivate individuals and schools to use that information to improve practice, and build the knowledge necessary for interpreting and applying the information. That requires the participation of school leaders who are skilled in interpreting test results and in using data to plan and design appropriate strategies for improvement. It also demands that school leaders involve their staff in the use of accountability data in order to strengthen professional learning communities within schools and engage those who need to change their practice.

CONCLUSIONS

School leaders can make a difference in school and student performance if they are granted the autonomy to make important decisions. To do this effectively, they need to be able to adapt teaching programs to local needs, promote teamwork among teachers, and engage in teacher monitoring, evaluation and professional development. They need discretion in setting strategic direction and must be able to develop school plans and goals and monitor progress, using data to improve practice. They also need to be able to influence teacher recruitment to improve the match between candidates and their school's needs. Last but not least, leadership preparation and training are central and building networks of schools to stimulate and spread innovation and to develop diverse curricula, extended services and professional support can bring substantial benefits.

Notes

1. OECD (2010a).

2. Hallinger, P. and R. Heck (1998).

3. PricewaterhouseCoopers (2007).

4. Wylie, C. (2007).

5. Pont, B., D. Nusche and H. Moorman (2008a). Much of this chapter is based on this study which covered Australia, Austria, Belgium (Flanders and French Community), Chile, Denmark, Finland, France, Hungary, Ireland, Israel, Korea, The Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom (England, Northern Ireland and Scotland).

6. Hallinger, P. and R. Heck (2010).

7. Frost, D. (2011).

8. Bangs, J. and J. MacBeath (2012).

9. Ingvarson, L., et al. (2006).

10. Pont, B., D. Nusche and H. Moorman (2008b).

11. OECD (2009).

12. Darling-Hammond, L., et al. (2007).

13. Blossing, U. and M. Ekholm (2005).

14. Baker, B. and B. Cooper (2005).

15. Dinham, S., et al. (2011).

16. Davis S., et al. (2005).

17. New Zealand Ministry of Education (2002).

18. Morgan, M. and C. Sugrue (2005).

19. *http://www.hmie.gov.uk/NR/rdonlyres/0980BB93-8806-40D9-806C-AA35532BA931/0/PrinciplesofInspectionandReview2010FINAL.pdf*

References

Anderson, M., et al. (2006), *Standards for School Leadership: a Critical Review of Literature*, Teaching Australia.

Augustine, C., et al. (2009), *Improving School Leadership: The Promise of Cohesive Leadership Systems*, RAND Education, The RAND Corporation .

Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (2011), "National Professional Standard for School Leadership", public statement endorsed by Ministers at the Ministerial Council for Education, Early Childhood Development and Youth Affairs (MCEECDYA) on 8 July 2011, transcript available at *http://www.aitsl.edu.au/verve/_resources/NationalProfessionalStandardForPrincipals_July25.pdf*

Baker, B. and **B. Cooper** (2005), "Do Principals With Stronger Academic Backgrounds Hire Better Teachers? Policy Implications for Improving High-Poverty Schools", *Educational Administration Quarterly*, August, Vol. 41, No. 3, pp. 449-479.

Bangs, J. and **J. MacBeath** (2012), "Collective Leadership: the role of teacher unions in encouraging teachers to take the lead in their own learning and in teacher policy", *Professional Development in Education,* Vol. 38, No. 2, April, pp. 331-343.

Barber, M. and **M. Mourshed** (2007), *How the World's Best-Performing School Systems Come Out on Top*, McKinsey, London.

Blossing, U. and **M. Ekholm** (2005), "School Reforms and Local Response in the Long Run: A Twenty-year Longitudinal Study of 35 Swedish 'Grund' Schools", paper presented at the Second OECD Conference on Evidence-Based Policy Research, Stockholm, 27-28 January.

Bush, T. and **D. Glover** (2004), "Leadership Development: Evidence and Beliefs", National College for School Leadership, Nottingham.

Bush, T. and **D. Jackson** (2002), "A Preparation for School Leadership: International Perspectives", *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, Vol. 30.

Darling-Hammond, L., et al. (2007), *Preparing School Leaders for a Changing World: Lessons from Exemplary Leadership Development Programs,* Stanford University.

Davis, S., et al. (2005), *Review of Research, School Leadership Study: Developing Successful Principals,* Stanford Educational Leadership Institute, and the Wallace Foundation.

Day, C., et al. (2009), "The Impact of School Leadership on Pupil Outcomes", *Research Report DCSF-RR108,* University of Nottingham.

Dinham, S., et al. (2011), "Breakthroughs in school leadership development in Australia", in *School Leadership and Management*, Vol. 31, No. 2, pp. 139-154.

Frost, D. (2011), "Supporting Teacher Leadership in 15 Countries, International Teacher Leadership project Phase 1, Leadership for Learning", University of Cambridge Faculty of Education.

Fry, B, G. Bottoms, and **K. O'Neill** (2004), "The Principal Internship: How Can We Get it Right?", Southern Regional Education Board (SREB), Atlanta.

Gorham, M., M. Finn-Stevenson and **B. Lapin** (2008), "Enriching School Leadership Development through Coaching", *Research and Policy Brief,* The School of the 21st Century, Yale University.

Hallinger, P. and **R. Heck** (1998), "Exploring the Principal's Contribution to School Effectiveness: 1980-1995", School Effectiveness and School Improvement, Vol. 9, pp. 157-191.

Hallinger, P. and **R. Heck** (2010), "Collaborative Leadership and School Improvement: Understanding the impact on school capacity and student learning", *School Leadership and Management,* 30:2, pp. 95-110.

Hamalainen K., K. Hamalainen and **J. Kangasniemi** (2011), "2011 Annual Conference of the Association for Teacher Education in Europe", 24 - 28 August 2011: 12 December 2011, *www.ppf.lu.lv/pn/files/articles/ATEE%202011%20Hamalainen.doc,* "Osaava verme", 3 July 2011, *http://ktl.jyu.fi/ktl/verme/osaavaverme.*

Heck, R. and **P. Hallinger** (2009), "Assessing the Contribution of Distributed Leadership to School Improvement and Growth in Math Achievement", *American Educational Research Journal,* Vol. 46, No. 3 (September), pp. 659-689.

Hess, F. and **A. Kelly** (2007), "Learning to Lead: What gets taught in principal-preparation programs", *The Teachers College Record*, Columbia University.

Ingvarson, L., et al. (2006), "Standards for School Leadership: A Critical Review of the Literature", *Teaching Australia,* Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership Ltd., Canberra.

Karstanje, P. and **C. Webber** (2008), "Programs for school principal preparation in East Europe", *Journal of Educational Administration*, Vol. 46, No. 6.

Leithwood, K., et al. (2004), *How Leadership Influences Student Learning*, Minneapolis, Minnesota: Center for Applied Research and Educational Improvement, University of Minnesota.

Leithwood, K., et al. (2006), *Seven Strong Claims about Successful School Leadership*, National College of School Leadership, Nottingham.

Levine, A. (2005), *Educating School Leaders*, The Education Schools Project, *http://www.edschools.org/reports_leaders.htm*.

Matthews, P. (2009) *Twenty Outstanding Primary Schools: Excelling against the Odds,* Ofsted, United Kingdom.

Matthews, P. (2009) *Twelve Outstanding Secondary Schools: Excelling against the Odds,* Ofsted, United Kingdom.

Moos L. (2011), "Educating Danish school leaders to meet new expectations?", *School Leadership & Management,* Vol. 31, Issue 2.

Morgan, G. and **R. Hawkins** (2004), "Generational Change in the Principalship", Leadership Fellowship 2004, Frank Farrell Award, New South Wales Department of Education and Training.

Morgan, M. and **C. Sugrue** (2005), "Evaluation of the MISNEACH Program", Clare Education Centre, Ennis, Ireland.

Mourshed M., C. Chijioke and **M. Barber** (2010), *How the World's Most Improved School Systems Keep Getting Better*, McKinsey and Company.

Murphy, J. (1992), "The landscape of principal preparation: Reframing the education of schools administrators", Newbury Park.

New Zealand Ministry of Education (2002), "Principals' Development Package", unpublished paper.

OECD (2009), *Creating Effective Teaching and Learning Environments: First Results from TALIS*, OECD Publishing.

OECD (2010a), *PISA 2009 Results: What Makes a School Successful? Resources, Policies and Practices* (Volume IV), PISA, OECD Publishing.

OECD (2010b), *Improving Schools: Strategies for Action for Mexico*, OECD Publishing.

OECD (2011a), *Strong Performers and Successful Reformers in Education: Lessons from PISA for the United States,* OECD Publishing.

OECD (2011b), *Improving Lower Secondary Schools in Norway*, OECD Publishing.

Olson, L. (2007), "Getting Serious About Preparation" in *Leading for Learning*, Supplement to the 12 September 2007 issue of *Education Week*.

Paredes, R. and **V. Paredes** (2010), "Chile: Educational Performance and Management under a Rigid Employment Regime", *CEPAL Review,* No. 99.

Pont, B., D. Nusche and **H. Moorman** (2008a), *Improving School Leadership: Volume 1: Policies and Practices*, OECD Publishing.

Pont, B., D. Nusche and **H. Moorman** (2008b), *Improving School Leadership: Volume 2: Case Studies on System Leadership*, OECD Publishing.

PricewaterhouseCoopers (2007), "Independent Study into School Leadership: Main Report", Department for Education and Skills, London.

Reeves, P. and **J. Berry** (2008), "Preparing, Developing and Credentialing K-12 School Leaders: Continuous Learning for Professional Roles", National Council of the Professors of Educational Administration, Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti.

Robinson, V., C. Lloyd and **K. Rowe** (2008), "The Impact of Leadership on Student Outcomes: An Analysis of the Differential Effects of Leadership Types", Educational Administration Quarterly, December 2008, Vol. 44, No. 5 635-674.

Ross, J. and **P. Gray** (2006), "School Leadership and Student Achievement: The Mediating Effects of Teacher Beliefs", *Canadian Journal of Education*, Vol. 29.

Scottish Executive Education Department (2007), OECD Review of the Quality and Equity of Education Outcomes in Scotland: Diagnostic Report, available at *www.oecd.org/edu/reviews/nationalpolicies*.

Smith, B., R. Harchar and **K. Campbell** (2006), "Reality Check: Designing a New Leadership Program for the 21st Century", National Council of the Professors of Educational Administration, Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti.

Witziers, B., R. Bosker and **M. Kruger** (2003), "Educational Leadership and Student Achievement: the Elusive Search for an Associaton", *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 39.

Wylie, C. (2007), *School Governance in New Zealand: How Is It Working?,* New Zealand Council for Educational Research, Wellington.