



3

The Importance of School Leadership

Unlike other chapters of this volume, which take the teachers' perspective in the analyses, the data in this chapter focus on principals and the schools in which they work. This chapter provides details about the increasingly demanding role of school principals; their responsibilities; the instructional leadership they provide; their demographic characteristics, formal education, prior work experience, and engagement in professional development; and their satisfaction with their work. Findings from the cross-national comparisons are used to draw inferences for policy and practice.



Highlights

- Principals in countries and economies taking part in the OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) have a demanding and far-ranging set of responsibilities. On average, principals spend the most time (41%) managing human and material resources, planning, reporting and adhering to regulations.
- In some countries, principals who show high levels of instructional leadership are more likely to report using student performance and student evaluation results to develop the school's educational goals and programmes and to report working on a professional development plan for their school.
- Principals with higher levels of instructional leadership tend to spend more time on curriculum and teaching-related tasks, and in most countries they are more likely to directly observe classroom teaching as part of the formal appraisal of teachers' work in their school.
- The gender distribution of principals differs from the distribution of teachers. Although the majority of teachers in all but one country are women, the proportion of female principals is generally lower.
- Across TALIS countries and economies, principals are well educated. The majority of principals have completed formal education at the tertiary level, which, on average, included participation in school administration or principal training programmes, teacher preparation programmes or instructional leadership training.
- On average across TALIS countries and economies, school principals have 21 years of teaching experience.
- While principals who report high levels of distributed leadership and instructional leadership also report higher job satisfaction, heavier workloads and lack of shared work and decision making have a negative relationship with principals' job satisfaction.

INTRODUCTION

School principals are often the connection between teachers, students and their parents or guardians, the education system and the wider community in which a school exists. Although principals have always occupied this intersection, the profession has become increasingly challenging over time. Some principals say they confront incompatible demands, referring to the challenge of meeting the demands of teachers, students and parents or guardians on the one hand, while addressing the expectations placed upon them by the systems in which they work and the communities in which schools are located on the other. In the contexts in which most decision-making authority has been devolved to the school level, principals can be especially challenged by the number and variety of demands they face. These demands can include increasing social diversity, the inclusion of students with special needs, an emphasis on retaining students until graduation, and ensuring that students have the knowledge necessary to be able to participate in an increasingly competitive economy. These demands require that principals manage human and material resources, communicate and interact with individuals who occupy a variety of positions, make evidence-informed decisions and provide the instructional leadership to teachers necessary for helping students succeed in school.

Thus, school leadership is increasingly a priority for many countries concerned about improving student achievement results (Pont, Nusche and Moorman, 2008; Robinson, Hohepa and Lloyd, 2009) and in improving schools that are underperforming or failing (Branch, Hanushek and Rivkin, 2013). Many see principals as contributing to student achievement through their impact on the school, its organisation and climate and especially upon teachers and teaching. Hallinger and Heck (1996) observed that the relationship between principal leadership and student achievement was difficult to establish empirically. One reason for this is that the role of the school principal is not particularly well understood. Marzano, Waters and McNulty (2005) assert that, contrary to what one might expect, there is no clear, well-articulated body of research about the role of the principal and school leadership. They reference the historical line of literature arguing that leadership at the school level is linked to the existence and clarity of a school's mission and goals, the climate that prevails in the school as well as in individual classrooms, teachers' attitudes, the practices that teachers employ in the classroom, the way that curriculum and instruction are organised and the opportunity that students have to learn.

The principal's influence on students is often indirect, which can make it difficult to understand ways in which principals' leadership or decisions might affect student achievement. (see, for example, Ross and Gray, 2006). School leadership



and a school's success are linked, mediated by the impact that principals have on the organisation of teachers' work, school organisation and relationships between the school and the wider community (Aydin, Sarier and Uysal, 2013; Lucas et al., 2012; Chin, 2007; Bell, Bolam and Cubillo, 2003; Hallinger, Bickman and Davis, 1996). In other words, principals influence the climate and organisation of their school and its staff and the conditions under which the staff, especially teachers, work.

In a number of contexts, principals are being accorded much greater decision-making authority than they have enjoyed in the past. Sometimes described as the "devolution revolution" (Baker and LeTendre, 2005), this movement has given schools in some countries more relative autonomy for the management and control of education. While the forms and names of such entities differ across countries and sometimes even within countries (local educational authorities, charter schools and local school councils, for example), greater autonomy typically includes increased principal decision-making authority and increased demands for results. It is not surprising that in almost every country, the demands on and responsibilities of school principals are greater today than at any time in the past.

The TALIS data add to the collective understanding of principals' roles and their leadership in the varied policy contexts represented among the countries taking part in TALIS 2013 and of principals' potential for improving schools and student achievement. This chapter begins by discussing the increasingly complex and demanding work in which contemporary principals engage, including their development of school goals and programmes and professional development plans. The chapter is then devoted to what many regard as the most important professional responsibility that principals carry out: instructional leadership.

The chapter's next section provides a profile of principals in TALIS countries and economies, including information about gender and age distribution, formal education, leadership training, practical experience and continued professional development of the principals who responded to the survey. The chapter then describes the relationships between principals' leadership styles and a variety of other factors previously discussed in the chapter. These factors include the impact of instructional leadership on principals' work setting goals and programmes, their work on professional development planning, outcomes of teacher appraisals and the time principals spend on curriculum and teaching-related tasks. The chapter concludes with a discussion of principals' job satisfaction and implications for policy and practice that can be drawn from all of the data examined.

THE PRINCIPAL'S WORK

The work of a principal is demanding (see, for example, Day et al., 2008), and the time for meeting the demands is limited. The TALIS data provide a useful starting point for understanding the work of principals and how they prioritise their time.

Box 3.1. Principal working time in primary and upper secondary schools

Tables 3.1.a and 3.1.b contain the data on time distribution for principals in primary (ISCED 1) and upper secondary (ISCED 3) schools. In general, the way that principals distribute their time is similar across education levels. There are, however, a few notable exceptions.

In Finland and Mexico, primary school principals report spending a smaller proportion of their time on administrative and leadership tasks and meetings (40% and 32%, respectively) than their lower secondary colleagues (48% and 38%, respectively). In contrast, primary school principals in Finland report spending more of their time on curriculum and teaching-related tasks (29%) than lower secondary school principals (18%).

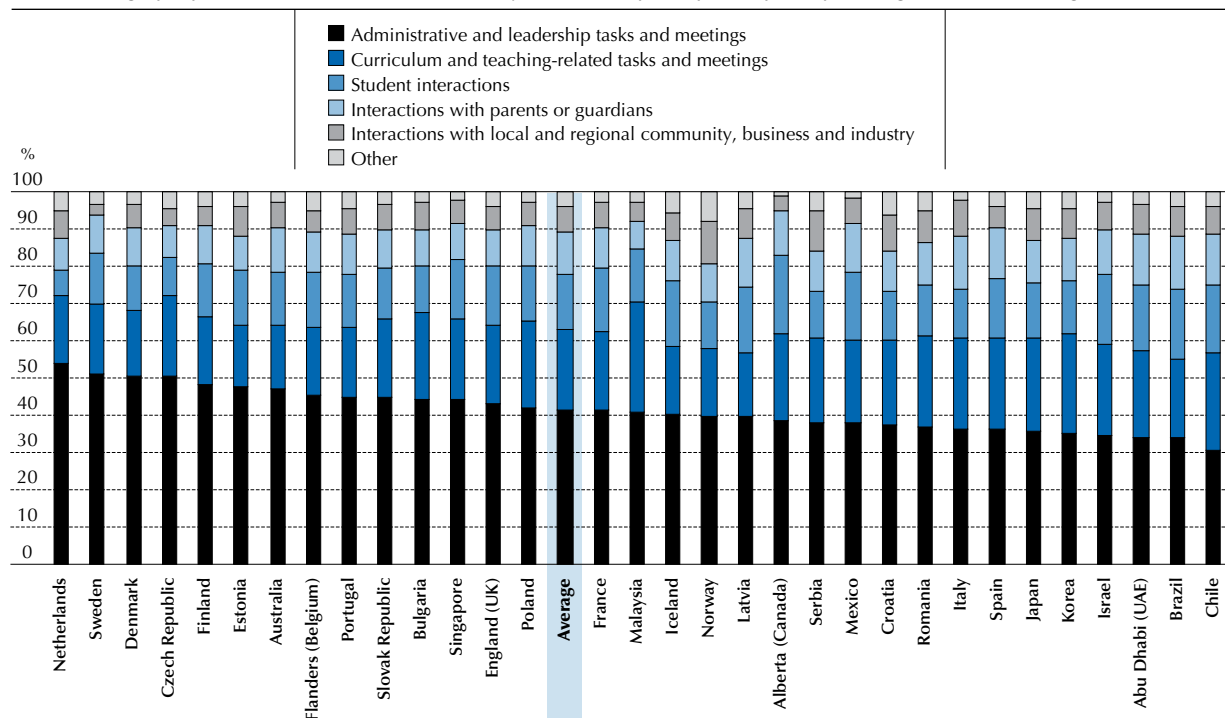
In upper secondary schools, administrative and leadership tasks consume even more time for principals in Finland, who report spending more than half (55%) of their time on these tasks and meetings. This proportion is similar to the average in Denmark (51%) and Iceland (50%). Upper secondary principals in Denmark, Finland and Iceland report spending about half as much time as their colleagues in lower secondary schools interacting with parents (4-5% versus 10-11%). In contrast, principals tend to report spending more time interacting with local and regional community, businesses and industry partners in upper secondary as compared with lower secondary education. This is particularly the case in Finland (10% compared with 5% of their time) and in Norway (18% compared with 12% of their time).



■ Figure 3.1 ■

Principals' working time

Average proportion of time lower secondary education principals report spending on the following activities



Countries are ranked in descending order, based on the percentage of time principals spend on administrative and leadership tasks and meetings.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2013 Database, Table 3.1.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933041231>

Respondents to the TALIS 2013 survey were asked how they distribute their work time. As Table 3.1 and Figure 3.1 indicate, on average, principals devote 41% of their time to administrative and leadership tasks and meetings; 21% of their time to curriculum and teaching-related tasks and meetings; 15% to interactions with students; 11% to interactions with parents or guardians; and 7% to interactions with local and regional community, businesses and industries. While there is definitely variation between countries for each of these tasks, Figure 3.1 shows that nearly two-thirds of principals' time, on average, is spent on administrative and leadership and curriculum and teaching. While this can be seen as the main business of the school and main responsibility for principals, it leaves very little time for principals to carry out other tasks. Box 3.1 shares the data on working time for principals of primary and upper secondary schools in the countries with data for these populations.

The work of principals includes a variety of administrative activities that, if not performed, could impede the effective operation of the school. The TALIS survey asked principals about the leadership activities in which they engaged during the preceding 12 months. Table 3.2 and Figure 3.2 present data about the proportion of principals who report having engaged "frequently" in particular leadership activities.¹

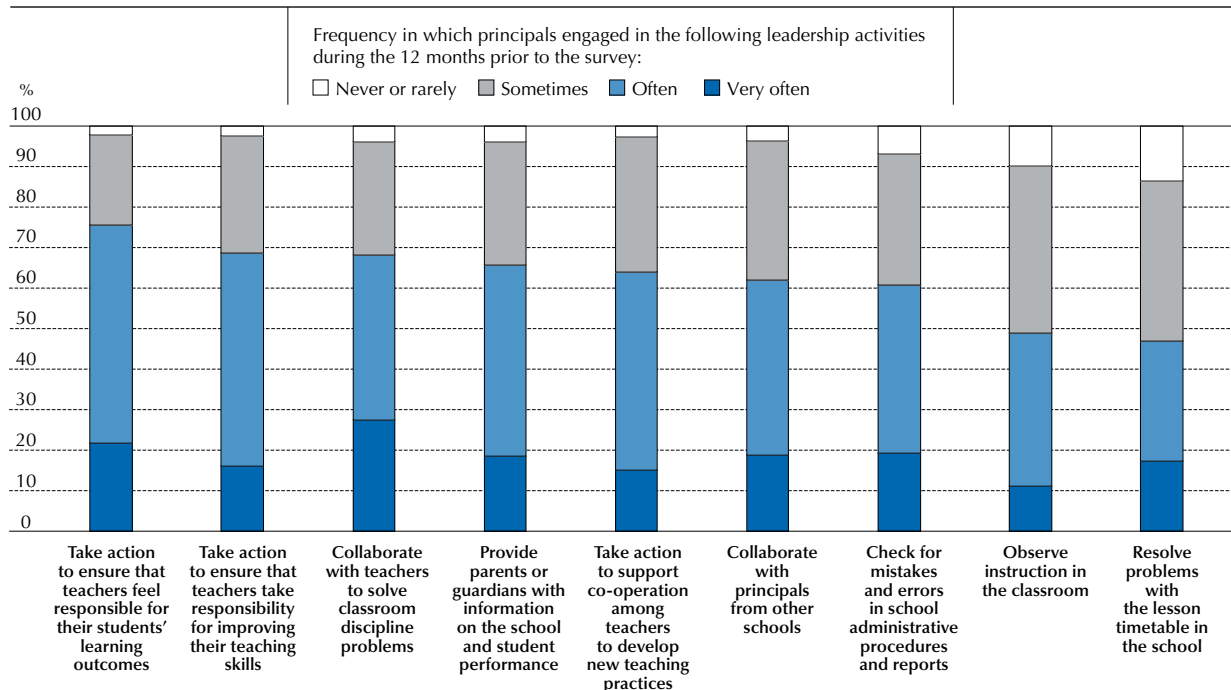
Among the most challenging of a teacher's responsibilities is maintaining a productive and orderly environment in which teachers can teach and students learn (see, for example, MacNeil and Prater, 1999). Students cannot learn and teachers cannot teach if students are unruly. Collaboration between principals and teachers to solve classroom discipline problems varies significantly across countries. Malaysia and Romania are on one end of the spectrum, where more than 90% of principals report high-frequency collaboration with teachers to solve discipline problems. Australia, Estonia, Iceland, Japan, the Netherlands and England (United Kingdom) are at the other end of the spectrum, where more than half of principals (58%-72%) report infrequent collaboration with teachers to solve classroom discipline problems (Table 3.2). It is important to keep in mind that the patterns reported here may reflect differences in disciplinary issues among countries rather than differences in the attention that principals pay to disciplinary matters. Further investigation is necessary to determine the significance of these differences.



■ Figure 3.2 ■


Principals' leadership

Percentage of lower secondary education principals who report having engaged in the following leadership activities, and the frequency in which they engaged, during the 12 months prior to the survey



Leadership activities are ranked in descending order, based on the percentage of principals who engaged "often" or "very often" in a specific leadership activity during the 12 months prior to the survey.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2013 Database, Tables 3.2 and 3.2.Web.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933041250>

In addition to the help principals may provide to teachers in solving disciplinary problems, principals can observe instruction and provide teachers with feedback based on their observations (OECD, 2013; see also Chapter 5). Veenman, Visser and Wijkamp (1998) provide evidence from a programme for training Dutch principals in coaching skills, showing, among other things, that principal coaching helped to strengthen teacher autonomy, enabling teachers to reflect on the effectiveness of their instruction and to formulate action plans for improving their teaching. Improving instructional effectiveness and improving teaching should, in turn, help to improve student learning outcomes.

The average proportion of principals who say they frequently observe instruction in the classroom is more evenly divided. On average, nearly half (49%) of school leaders say they make observations frequently. Frequently observing instruction in the classrooms is more commonly reported among principals in Bulgaria (89%), Malaysia (88%), Romania (82%) and Abu Dhabi (United Arab Emirates) (88%) and substantially less commonly reported among principals in Estonia (7%), Finland (11%), France (8%), Iceland (15%) and Portugal (5%).

Another challenge that teachers face is maintaining the currency of their knowledge and practice. By encouraging teachers to learn from one another, principals help teachers remain current in their practice and may also help to develop more collaborative practices between teachers in their schools (see Chapter 7). Principals were asked about taking action to support co-operation among teachers to develop new teaching practices. As Figure 3.2 indicates, on average 64% of principals report taking such action frequently (ranging from 34% in Japan to 98% in Malaysia) (see also Table 3.2.Web). In Chile, Malaysia, Romania, Serbia, the Slovak Republic and Abu Dhabi (United Arab Emirates), principals report the highest incidence (between 80% and 98%) of frequently supporting co-operation among their teachers around the development of new teaching practices. In Denmark, Estonia, Japan, the Netherlands and Flanders (Belgium), more than half of principals report never, rarely or only sometimes doing this. It would be interesting to learn whether this is simply a lack of action on the part of principals in these countries or whether it is simply unnecessary because teachers in these schools might have cultures of co-operation already.



Students' achievement depends on the experience and skills their teachers possess (Jepsen and Rivkin, 2009; Huang and Moon, 2008; Biniaminov and Glasman, 1983; Veldman and Brophy, 1974). Principals can play an important part in ensuring that teachers take responsibility for improving their teaching skills. Table 3.2 and Figure 3.2 show that on average a majority of principals (69%) take this action frequently (ranging from 39% in Japan to 95% in Malaysia). Bulgaria (88%), Chile (88%), Malaysia (95%), Romania (85%), Serbia (82%), Singapore (84%) and Abu Dhabi (United Arab Emirates) (93%) are among the high-incidence countries where principals frequently act in this regard. Finland (60%), Japan (61%), Norway (53%), Sweden (56%) and Flanders (Belgium) (59%) are the countries where more than half of principals report doing this never or rarely or only sometimes.

Many principals also remind teachers about the importance of taking responsibility for what their students learn. On average, 76% of principals (ranging from 33% in Japan to 100% in Malaysia) say they frequently take action to ensure that teachers feel responsible for their students' learning outcomes. In Bulgaria, Chile, Malaysia, Poland, Romania, Singapore and Abu Dhabi (United Arab Emirates), more than 90% of principals report taking such action frequently. In contrast, more than half of principals in Denmark, Finland, Japan and Norway report doing so infrequently (Table 3.2).

Student success is enhanced when the efforts of teachers are complemented by support from parents (Jeynes, 2011). Parents play an important role in expressing support for the school and for the success of their children, a role that depends upon parents having accurate information from the school. The responsibility for providing parents or guardians with information about the school and student performance sometimes rests with the principal. As seen in Figure 3.2, this is a task that two-thirds of principals on average report doing frequently. The five countries with the highest proportion of principals who engage in this task infrequently are Croatia (62%), Denmark (72%), Finland (75%), Norway (63%) and Sweden (70%). In these countries, it could be that parents are not being provided with information from the school very frequently or the responsibility for communicating with parents could lie elsewhere (with teachers, for example).

Box 3.2. **Activities in which primary and upper secondary principals engaged in the 12 months prior to the survey**

Table 3.2.a and Table 3.2.b present data on the percentage of principals who report engaging often or very often in a number of leadership activities for those countries that implemented TALIS in their primary (ISCED 1) or upper secondary (ISCED 3) schools.

For many of the activities examined, principals across different education levels do not differ greatly. In many of these cases, this may indicate that these activities are considered important whether a principal works in a primary, a lower secondary or an upper secondary school. This is the case for activities such as supporting co-operation among teachers to develop new teaching practices or ensuring that teachers feel responsible for their students' learning.

There are, however, activities that primary school principals in some countries are less likely than their lower secondary colleagues to identify as being an important part of their work. This is the case in Norway, where primary school principals are much less likely to report that they collaborate with teachers to solve classroom disciplinary problems (48%) than their colleagues in lower secondary schools (78%). Primary school leaders in Poland, on the other hand, are more likely to say that they collaborate with principals in other schools (79%) as compared with principals in lower secondary schools (61%).

There is also a divergence in practice between lower secondary and upper secondary school principals. In Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Poland, principals in upper secondary schools are much less likely to report that they collaborate with teachers to solve classroom discipline problems than those in lower secondary schools. A smaller proportion of upper secondary principals in Mexico and Norway say that they observe instruction in the classroom (48% and 6%, respectively) compared with their lower secondary peers (64% and 21%, respectively). In half of the countries with comparable data (Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Mexico and Norway, specifically), principals in upper secondary schools are less likely to provide parents with information on school and student performance than principals in lower secondary schools. Upper secondary principals in Mexico and Norway are also less likely to collaborate with principals from other schools (44% and 56%, respectively) than their lower secondary peers (57% and 71%, respectively).



Identifying and correcting errors in administrative procedures or reports and resolving problems with the school's timetable of lessons are two of the many administrative tasks that principals perform. On average, 61% of principals say they check frequently for mistakes and errors in school administrative procedures and reports. On average, slightly less than half of principals (47%) say they frequently resolve problems with the lesson timetable in the school. In Chile, Finland, Malaysia, Romania and Abu Dhabi (United Arab Emirates), 74-84% of principals say they frequently resolve timetable problems, while in the Czech Republic, Estonia, Japan, Latvia and England (United Kingdom), between 80% and 91% of school principals say they resolve school timetable problems infrequently. Both of these administrative tasks are important, yet in some countries principals are much freer from this administrative burden than in others. It would be interesting to learn how and whether these tasks are distributed to other members of the staff in these countries.

Collaboration between principals from different schools is one way that principals can learn from and support one another. The TALIS data in Table 3.2 also provide an indication of the extent to which such collaboration occurs (see also Table 3.2.Web). On average, 62% of principals indicate that they collaborate with principals in other schools frequently. Large proportions of the principals in Finland (82%), Malaysia (89%), the Netherlands (86%), Romania (87%) and Serbia (96%) say they collaborate with principals from other schools frequently. In contrast, significant proportions in Brazil (10%), Chile (18%), Israel (8%) and Spain (9%) say they never or rarely collaborate with principals in other schools. Box 3.2 presents the data on the activities that primary and upper secondary principals reported participating in for the countries with available data.

A strong school leader establishes a climate conducive to teaching and learning and fosters community support for the efforts of the teaching staff. In many countries, concern about improving student achievement results has made strong school leadership a priority (Pont, Nusche and Moorman, 2008; Branch, Hanushek and Rivkin, 2013). The literature devoted to principal leadership is replete with examples of the ways that principals exert leadership (see especially Chapter 4 in Robinson, Hohepa, Lloyd, 2009), including planning the school's goals and programme (Grissom, Loeb and Master, 2013) and its professional development plan (OECD, 2013); collaborating with teachers to solve classroom discipline problems (MacNeil and Prater, 1999); observing instruction (Veenman, Visser and Wijkamp, 1998); encouraging teachers to take responsibility for improving their teaching and for student learning; and providing parents or guardians with information about the school and about student performance (Jeynes, 2011).

Planning school goals, programmes and professional development

As data have become more available to principals over the last quarter century, there has been a transition from reliance on a principal's own knowledge in making decisions to making choices informed by the use of more readily available data. This transition has been accompanied by increased demands for accountability (Vanhoof et al., 2014). Today, more than at any time in the past, principals are responsible for the development of the school's educational goals and programmes and for the use of student performance and student evaluation results to develop those goals and programmes.

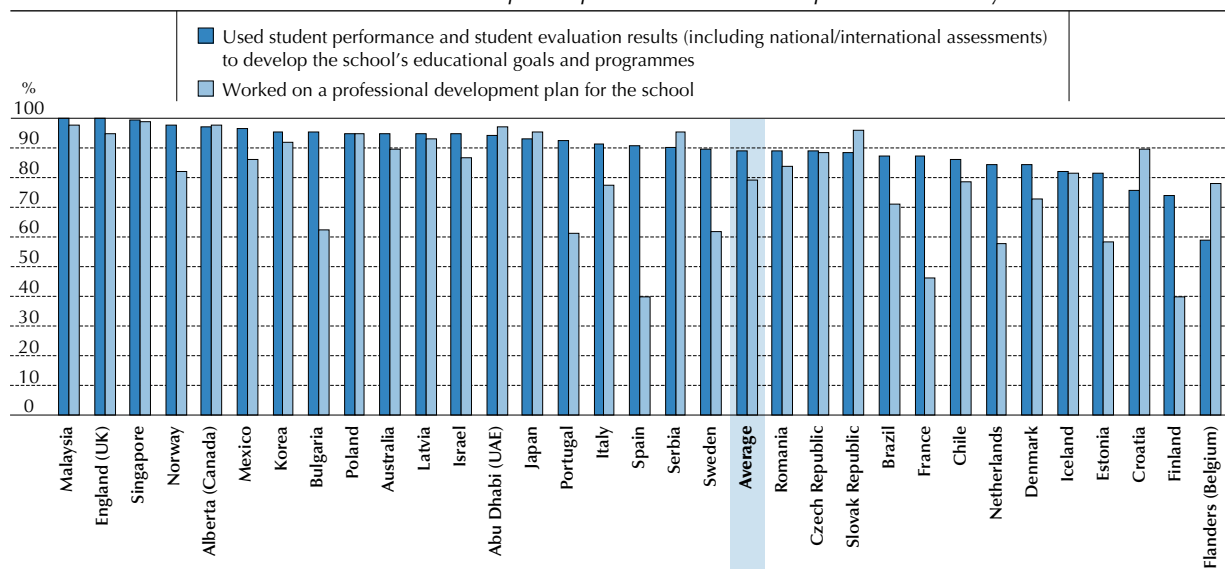
Data about principals' participation in activities related to a school development plan appear in Table 3.3 and Figure 3.3. Nearly nine in ten principals on average across TALIS countries report using student performance and student evaluation results (including national or international assessments) to develop the school's educational goals and programmes. The proportions of principals who reported using student performance and student evaluation results to develop the school's educational goals and programmes was lowest in Croatia (75%), Finland (74%) and Flanders (Belgium) (58%) and nearly universal in Malaysia (99%), Norway (98%), Singapore (99%), Alberta (Canada) (97%) and England (United Kingdom) (99%). It would be interesting to learn whether the actions of school leaders in the latter five locales are influenced by a national policy in this regard.

In addition to the development of their school's goals and programmes, principals are increasingly responsible for working on a professional development plan for their school. Although this plan is an important facet of a principal's work, on average the proportion of principals working on such a plan is nearly ten percentage points lower (79%) than the average proportion of principals who report using student performance and student evaluation results to develop the school's educational goals and programmes. Figure 3.3 shows that this pattern is found in most countries. The proportion of principals who report working on a professional development plan for their school is lowest in Finland and Spain (40%) and almost comprehensive in Malaysia (97%), Singapore (99%), Abu Dhabi (United Arab Emirates) (97%) and Alberta (Canada) (98%). Box 3.3 presents principals' reported activities related to school development plans in primary and upper secondary education for countries with available data.

■ Figure 3.3 ■


Principals' participation in a school development plan

Percentage of lower secondary education principals who report having engaged in the following activities related to a school development plan in the 12 months prior to the survey



Countries are ranked in descending order, based on the percentage of principals who used student performance and student evaluation results (including national/international assessments) to develop the school's educational goals and programmes.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2013 Database, Table 3.3.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933041269>

Box 3.3. Activities related to a school development plan in primary and upper secondary schools

Tables 3.3.a and 3.3.b show the percentages of principals at the primary (ISCED 1) and upper secondary (ISCED 3) levels who report engaging in activities related to a school development plan in the 12 months prior to the survey.

Primary school principals in Finland report working on a professional development plan for the school and using student performance and student evaluation results to develop the school's educational goals and programmes at lower rates (32% and 56%, respectively) than the other countries for which data on primary education are available (overall average of 74% and 82%, respectively). Compared with the average, primary school principals in Denmark and Flanders (Belgium) are also less likely to say that they use student performance and evaluation results to develop the school's educational goals and programmes (75% and 74%, respectively). In contrast, almost all primary principals in Mexico, Norway and Poland report doing so.

As was the case at the other levels, principals in upper secondary schools in Finland report working on a professional development plan at a lower rate than do principals in other countries for which these data are available (54% versus 84%). However, this proportion is higher for upper secondary principals in Finland than for principals in lower secondary schools in Finland. Although all or almost all upper secondary principals in Norway and Singapore report using student performance and student evaluation results to develop the school's educational goals and programmes, those in Denmark (78%), Finland (76%) and Iceland (79%) report doing so at slightly lower rates than average (89%).

Sharing responsibilities

Because of its complexity, the work of the school and especially the work of the principal are increasingly recognised as responsibilities that are or should be more broadly shared. The increased responsibility and accountability demanded of school principals suggests that to meet their responsibilities, principals would be prudent to share their work among others inside and outside the school (Schleicher, 2012).



Chapter 2 examines issues of school autonomy, looking at the percentage of teachers whose school leader reported that considerable responsibility for certain tasks was held at a school level (see Table 2.24). This chapter looks at those principals who do have significant responsibility for tasks such as appointing, hiring, suspending and dismissing teachers; determining the allocation of a school's resources; approving student admission; establishing the school's disciplinary and assessment policies; and determining which courses the school offers, the course content, and the instructional resources. Table 3.4 displays the percentage of principals who have significant responsibility for such tasks and who also report a shared responsibility. When a principal reports that the responsibility for a task is shared, this indicates that an active role is played in decision making by the principal and other members of the school management team, teachers who are not part of the school management team, a school's governing board or a local or national authority.

The data reveal a wide variation among countries in the extent to which principals share responsibility for various tasks (Table 3.4). For example, the percentage of principals in Croatia, Denmark, and the Netherlands reporting shared responsibility for the appointment of teachers is 75% or more, and for Bulgaria, France, Japan, Korea, Malaysia and Mexico, it is 20% or less (the overall average being 39%). More than half of the principals in Croatia, Denmark, the Netherlands, Serbia and England (United Kingdom) report sharing responsibility for dismissing or suspending teachers from employment. Yet, in many countries (Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, France, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Mexico, Poland, Spain and Sweden), 20% or less of the principals report sharing this responsibility (the overall average being 29%). Fewer principals report a shared responsibility for establishing teachers' salaries and pay scales (14% on average) or determining teachers' salary increases (18% on average). In only two countries (Latvia and England [United Kingdom]) do more than half of the principals indicate that they share responsibility for establishing teacher salaries and pay scales. Similarly, only in Estonia, Latvia and England (United Kingdom) do more than half of the principals share responsibility for determining salary increases for teachers.

On average, nearly half of the principals (47%) report a shared responsibility for deciding on budget allocation within the school. In some countries, however, fewer than one in four principals report this (Chile, Korea, Mexico, Romania and Abu Dhabi [United Arab Emirates]). In contrast, more than three-quarters of principals report this in Denmark and Latvia.

Overall, more principals report a shared responsibility with regard to the management of student discipline policies (61% on average) and assessment policies (52% on average). Of the principals in Denmark and Singapore, 80% or more report sharing responsibility for establishing student disciplinary policies and procedures, whereas less than half of the principals in Chile, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Mexico, Sweden and Abu Dhabi (United Arab Emirates) report doing so. Again, more than 80% of the principals in Denmark and Singapore report that they share responsibility for establishing student assessment policies. However, in Korea, Malaysia and Spain, less than 30% say that this responsibility is shared with others.

Many principals report a shared responsibility for tasks related to choosing which learning materials are used (45%), determining course content (35%) and deciding which courses are offered (52%). At least eight of ten principals in Denmark and the Netherlands report sharing responsibility for determining the courses that their schools offer, whereas less than a quarter of their peers in Croatia, Japan and Korea report sharing this responsibility. In the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic, 70% or more of the principals report that they share responsibility for determining the content of courses, while less than 10% of their counterparts in France, Malaysia and Flanders (Belgium) report doing so.

The variations in the extent to which particular responsibilities are shared are likely a reflection of both the policy contexts in which principals work and the proclivities of principals regarding the distribution of their responsibility. As pointed out in Chapter 2, schools may have autonomy in some areas but not in others. For example, teachers may be appointed by principals in some contexts, but salaries and increases may be determined by collective agreements negotiated outside the context of the local school.

Finally, more than a third of principals report a shared responsibility for approving students for admission to the school (37%). This is especially common in the Netherlands, where more than 80% of principals report this, while fewer than 20% of principals report this in Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Poland and Sweden.

Collaborative school culture for decision making: Distributed leadership

In addition to looking at the tasks that a principal may or may not share with colleagues, TALIS 2013 also asked principals about whether there was a collaborative culture for making decisions in the school. When school decisions involve not only the principal but others in the school who do not occupy the formal post of principal, including other members

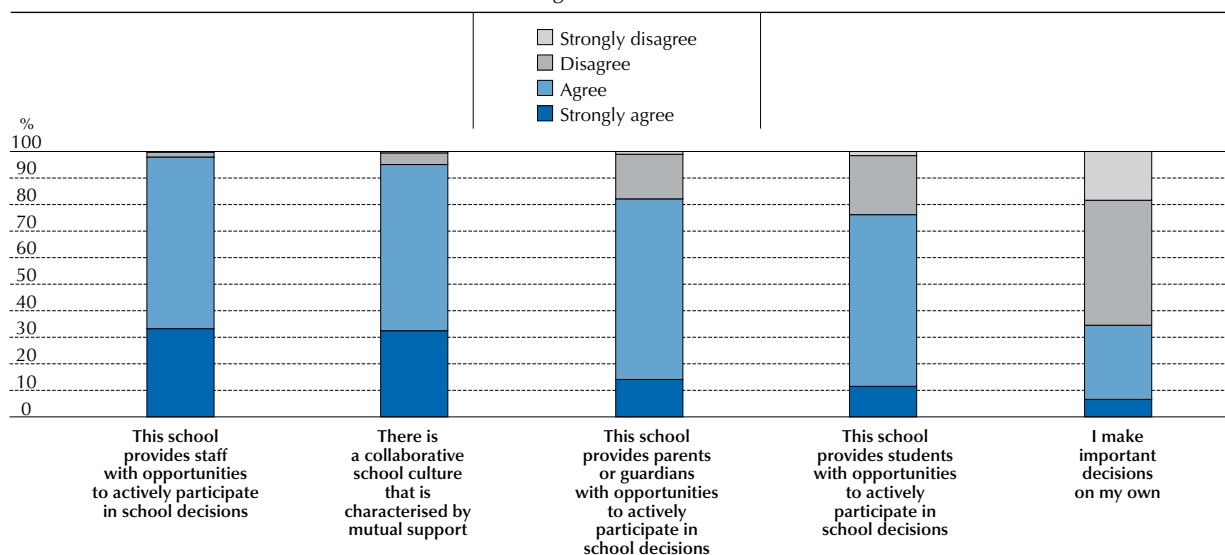


of the school's management team, vice-principals, and classroom teachers, this can be referred to as *distributed leadership* or *distributed decision making* (see, for example, Harris, 2008; Harris, 2012; Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009; Smylie et al., 2007). Figure 3.4 indicates the distribution of responses to five items on school decisions and school collaborative culture (some of which make up the distributed leadership index). As Figure 3.4 shows, on average across TALIS countries, the vast majority of principals (more than nine in ten) agree that there is a collaborative school culture in their schools (which is characterised by mutual support) or that the school provides staff with opportunities to participate in decisions. Along those same lines, only about a third of principals agree that they make important decisions on their own. This would indicate that, according to school leaders, most schools in TALIS countries enjoy some level of distributed leadership for decision making. Box 3.4 details the items that principals responded to regarding who makes decisions at their schools and describes the index that was constructed from these items.

■ Figure 3.4 ■


School decisions and collaborative school culture

Percentage of lower secondary education principals who “strongly disagree”, “disagree”, “agree” or “strongly agree” with the following statement about their school



Items are ranked in descending order, based on the percentage of principals who “disagree” or “strongly disagree” with the statement about their school.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2013 Database, Table 3.35.Web.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933041288>

Box 3.4. Description of the principal distributed leadership index

To measure distributed leadership, TALIS asked principals how strongly they agreed or disagreed with these statements regarding decision-making responsibilities at their school:

- This school provides staff with opportunities to actively participate in school decisions.
- This school provides parents or guardians with opportunities to actively participate in school decisions.
- This school provides students with opportunities to actively participate in school decisions.

See Annex B for more details on the construction and validation of this index.

The relationships of principal and school characteristics to principal distributed leadership (shown in Tables 3.5 and 3.6, respectively) were explored, though no consistent significant relationships were apparent across countries (see Box 3.5 for a description of multiple linear regression analyses used to examine relationships in this chapter). However, consistent relationships were found between distributed leadership and school climate. Principals in 23 countries report using higher levels of distributed leadership when working in schools with a positive school climate characterised by mutual respect,



openness and sharing among colleagues (Table 3.7). It would make sense, then, that sharing decision making might be easier in a climate such as this or, conversely, that sharing decision making might help develop a school climate such as this. (TALIS data do not allow us to report on the direction of the relationship.) Moreover, principals who report higher levels of distributed leadership also tend to report higher levels of job satisfaction in just over half (17) of TALIS countries (Table 3.19). If governments – and school principals themselves – are interested in higher levels of principal job satisfaction, this might provide another reason to encourage more distribution of leadership in schools.

Box 3.5. Description of multiple linear regression analysis in TALIS

In this chapter, multiple linear regression analysis was employed to determine the extent to which various factors (independent variables) contribute to instructional leadership or distributed leadership (dependent variables). The technique provides a better understanding of how the value of the dependent variable changes when any one of the independent variables varies (while all other independent variables are held constant).

A regression coefficient represents the change in the dependent variable that is associated with a change in the predictor variable when all other variables are held constant. For example, if the regression coefficient for a dependent variable (for example, a mark on a test) is 0.5, this means that a change of one (1.0) in an independent variable (for example, hours of study) is associated with a change of 0.5. If two students differed in the amount of study by one hour, then one could predict that the students would differ in their test marks by $(1)(0.5) = 0.5$. If, on the other hand, their study time differed by 30 minutes, one would predict that the students' marks would differ by $(0.5)(0.5) = 0.25$.

When interpreting multiple regression coefficients, it is important to keep in mind that each coefficient is influenced by the other independent variables in a regression model. The influence depends on the extent to which predictor variables are correlated. Therefore, each regression coefficient does not explain the total effect of independent variables on dependent variables. Rather, each coefficient represents the additional effect of adding that variable to the model, if the effects of all other variables in the model are already accounted for.

Readers should keep in mind that no adjustments were made to correct for the multiple analyses, increasing the likelihood that a relationship will be considered significant simply by chance. It is also important to note that because cross-sectional survey data were used in these analyses, no causal conclusions can be drawn. The perspective taken – i.e. the choice of independent and dependent variables – is entirely based on theoretical considerations.

For more details about these analyses as well as about the control variables used in these analyses, see Annex B.

The TALIS data serve to confirm what is already known: The job of the principal encompasses a wide range of complex tasks and responsibilities. When comparing the TALIS data across countries, the extent of participation in various administrative and leadership activities by principals is found to differ significantly, either by choice, circumstance or authority. However, a majority of principals in all countries work to develop their school's educational goals and programmes, and in some countries the number of principals doing so approaches 100%. A lower number – but still sizable in many countries – work to prepare a school's professional development plan. Principals are aided in both these endeavours by the increasing availability of student performance and evaluation data. Finally, the extent to which principals share responsibility for tasks or decisions also varies by country as well as by the nature of the specific task or decision. The TALIS data in this area serve as an interesting profile of the profession of a principal and could be used to support the development of standards for the profession as well as to help identify the kinds of initial training or professional development that might be required for this role.

WHO ARE TODAY'S SCHOOL LEADERS?

As illustrated previously, the TALIS data confirm the extensive responsibilities that principals have in many areas. These responsibilities include planning for and managing human resources, complying with regulations, reporting, managing finances, setting school goals and planning the school's programmes, preparing timetables, developing curriculum, teaching, making classroom observations, evaluating students, mentoring teachers, encouraging teacher professional development and the like. TALIS data further help answer important questions about today's school principals: Who are the individuals who assume responsibility for such an extensive and significant range of responsibilities?



What formal preparation and experience have they had for such responsibilities? What do they do to grow or develop their professional practice? By learning more about the background, skills and experience of school leaders and examining the tasks that are required of them, countries can better understand where gaps in skills or experience might lie.

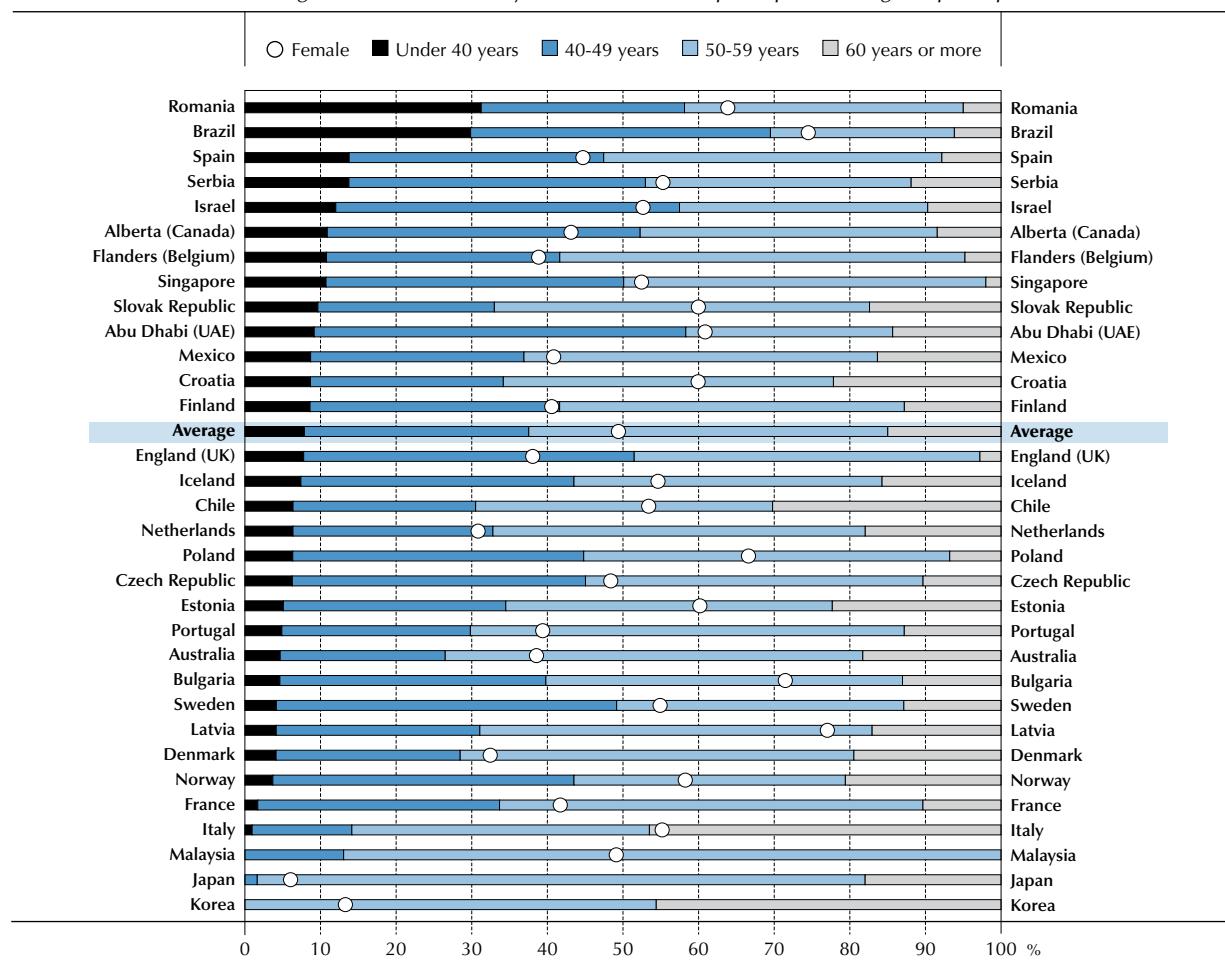
Age and gender of principals

The typical lower secondary school leader in the countries participating in TALIS 2013 is approximately 50 years of age (Table 3.8). Given that principals are often recruited from the ranks of teachers, it is not surprising that the proportion of principals younger than 40 years of age is small, with some notable exceptions. As shown in Figure 3.5, in Brazil and Romania, for example, around 30% of school principals are younger than 40. In Italy and Korea, nearly half of the school leaders are 60 years of age or older.

■ Figure 3.5 ■

Gender and age distribution of principals

Percentage of lower secondary education female principals and age of principals



Countries are ranked in descending order, based on the percentage of principals who are under 40 years old.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2013 Database, Table 3.8.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933041307>

As was evident in TALIS 2008, the gender distribution of principals in lower secondary schools differs from the distribution of teachers. In all TALIS countries but Japan, more than half of the lower secondary education teaching workforce is made up of women (see Chapter 2). On average, 68% of all teachers are female (see Table 2.1). The percentage of women principals is generally lower: 49% of principals in lower secondary schools in the TALIS countries are female, although the ratio of males to females is within a 40/60 to 60/40 spectrum. There are a few exceptions to this. In Brazil, Bulgaria and Latvia, school leadership positions are primarily occupied by women (75%, 71% and 77%, respectively),



while in Japan and Korea, men predominate (94% and 87%, respectively). Box 3.6 provides data on the gender and age distribution of principals in primary and upper secondary schools for those countries with data for these populations. Box 3.7 looks at data on the gender and age of principals for those countries that participated in TALIS 2008 and TALIS 2013.

Box 3.6. **Gender and age distribution of primary and upper secondary principals**

Tables 3.8.a and 3.8.b reveal that the percentages of male and female principals in primary (ISCED 1) and upper secondary (ISCED 3) education are similar to their colleagues in lower secondary schools. In all countries with data available for both primary and lower secondary education, there are higher proportions of female principals in primary schools than in lower secondary schools. The difference is particularly large in Flanders (Belgium), where more than half (59%) of the principals are female in primary education compared with 39% in lower secondary education.

In Denmark, a slightly higher proportion of upper secondary principals are women (46%) compared with their peers in primary (37%) and lower secondary (32%) schools. In Norway and Poland, fewer women are principals in upper secondary schools compared with both primary and lower secondary (however, the percentage of female principals at both school levels is relatively high in Poland).

In Iceland, Italy and Abu Dhabi (United Arab Emirates), there is a higher proportion of female principals in lower secondary school as compared with upper secondary.

The mean age of principals tends to be similar across all three levels of education. The largest difference is in Mexico, where principals tend to be younger on average in primary (45 years) and upper secondary (46 years) education than in lower secondary education (52 years).

Box 3.7. **Comparing gender and age distribution, TALIS 2008 and TALIS 2013**

Table 3.8.c compares the gender and age distributions of lower secondary principals for those countries that participated in both TALIS 2008 and TALIS 2013. Overall, the average proportion of principals who are women reached 50% in 2013 (compared with 47% in 2008). There are some large differences in gender between these countries, however. In Korea the proportion of female principals is comparatively small (13%), while in Brazil and Bulgaria the proportion is comparatively large (75% and 71%), and in all three countries there has been little change from 2008 to 2013.

In comparison with the other countries for which data are available, large proportions of principals in Italy (47%) and Korea (46%) are 60 years of age or older, which is an increase of 12 and 10 percentage points, respectively, since 2008. Although it is slightly lower in 2013 compared with 2008, the proportion of principals younger than 40 remains high in Brazil (30%).

Formal education of school principals

In the same way that the knowledge and skills students obtain from their schooling is influenced by the quality of the preparation and the conduct of teachers, the quality of a nation's schools relies heavily upon the preparation and conduct of its school leaders. Branch, Hanushek and Rivkin (2013) argue that because school leaders affect the achievement of all the students in a school, improving the quality of school leadership is more important than improving the quality of a *single* teacher's practice.

Given the complexity of the position and the fact that most principals typically begin their careers as teachers, it is not surprising that the majority (92% on average) of principals have formal education at ISCED level 5A (Table 3.9). (ISCED level 5A typically includes Bachelor's degrees and Master's degrees from universities or equivalent institutions. See Chapter 2 for a description of the ISCED levels of classification.) In Chile (25%), Croatia (18%), France (13%) and Flanders (Belgium) (40%), there are relatively large proportions of principals whose highest level of education is at ISCED level 5B. These types of programmes are generally more practically oriented and shorter than programmes at ISCED level 5A.



Box 3.8 describes the formal education of principals in primary and upper secondary schools in those countries with available data. Box 3.9 compares data on principals' educational preparation in 2008 and 2013 for those countries that participated in both cycles of TALIS.

Box 3.8. **Educational preparation of principals in primary and upper secondary education**

The educational attainment of principals in primary (ISCED 1) and upper secondary (ISCED 3) schools is similar to their lower secondary colleagues with a few noteworthy differences (see Tables 3.9.a and 3.9.b).

In Flanders (Belgium), 10% of principals in primary education have achieved ISCED level 5A and 90% have achieved ISCED level 5B, compared with 59% and 40%, respectively, in lower secondary education. In Mexico, 14% of the principals in primary education have completed education below ISCED level 5 compared with 1% in lower secondary education.

In Finland, 11% of principals in upper secondary schools reported their level of education at ISCED level 6,² while the proportion is lower (5%) in lower secondary education.

Box 3.9. **Educational preparation of principals in TALIS 2008 and in TALIS 2013**

Table 3.9.c contains data comparing the educational preparation of principals in 2008 and in 2013. Overall, similar patterns prevailed among countries participating in both cycles, although there were some notable differences. In Australia, Iceland and Spain, the proportions of principals at ISCED level 5A are noticeably larger in 2013 than they were in 2008. In Italy and Portugal, the proportions of principals at ISCED level 5A are noticeably smaller, primarily as a consequence of the larger proportions of principals who report that their highest level of education is ISCED level 6.³

Further to examining the level of education achieved by school principals, TALIS 2013 inquired about the nature of the education that school leaders have received, asking about participation in school administration or principal training programmes or courses, teacher preparation programmes or courses and instructional leadership training or courses (Table 3.10). Although one might assume that principal preparation would typically include these types of programmes or courses, one of the most striking findings, as shown in Figure 3.6, is the large proportions of school leaders in some countries who report that their preparation did not include these experiences.

Looking at participation in a school administration programme or course, on average across TALIS countries, a quarter of principals report having undertaken such preparation prior to assuming the position, 37% after being appointed to the position and 22% that they began such preparation prior to taking up the position but continued the preparation after being assigned as a principal. However, in Croatia, and Serbia, at least half of the school principals say that they have never participated in a school administration or principal training programme or course.

The data from Table 3.10 indicate that typical preparation of principals includes participation in a teacher training or education programme. For the majority of principals, participation occurs prior to assuming responsibilities of the position. A substantial proportion of individuals undertake some formal preparation as teachers after they assume the principal's position (8%) or cumulatively before and after assuming that position (18%). However, 32% of the principals in the Czech Republic and 45% of the principals in Portugal indicate that they have never participated in a teacher training programme or course.

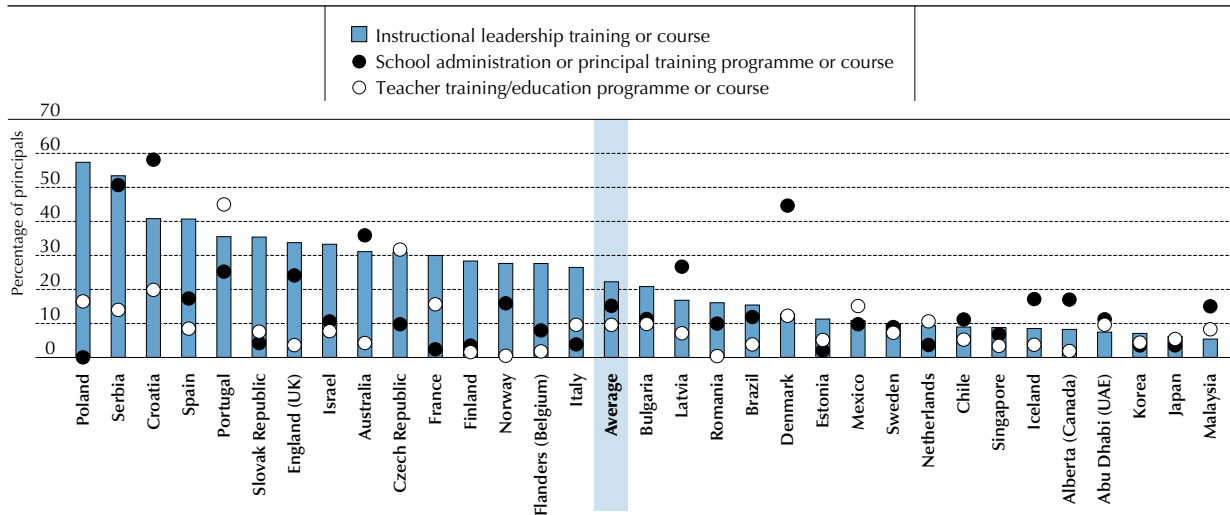
In a similar fashion, preparation of principals typically includes preparation in instructional leadership. On average, 24% of principals report undertaking such preparation prior to assuming the position, 31% after being appointed to the position and 23% that they began such preparation prior to taking up the position but continued the preparation after becoming a principal. However, more than half of the principals in Poland and Serbia indicate they have never had such preparation.



■ Figure 3.6 ■

Elements not included in principals' formal education

Percentage of lower secondary education principals who report that the following elements were not included in their formal education



Countries are ranked in descending order, based on the percentage of principals for whom instructional leadership training or course were not included in their formal education.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2013 Database, Table 3.10.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933041326>

Box 3.10 includes data on the elements included in the formal education of primary and upper secondary principals for those countries with available data.

Box 3.10. Elements included in primary and upper secondary principals' formal education

Tables 3.10.a and 3.10.b contain data on the formal education of principals in primary (ISCED 1) and upper secondary (ISCED 3) schools, respectively. On average, only 8% of principals in primary schools have never undertaken teacher education in any form. But the average is distorted by Denmark and Poland, where 13% and 23% of primary principals, respectively, have never undertaken any kind of teacher education. More than a third (36%) of the principals in Denmark also report that school administration or principal training programmes or courses were not included in their formal education. Two-thirds of the principals in Poland have never had formal education that included instructional leadership training or courses.

Nearly half (46%) of the principals at the upper secondary school level in Mexico and 22% of the principals in Denmark have never undertaken teacher education in any form, which is substantially above the average of 11% for all ten countries surveyed. The average of the principals in the participating countries who say they never had school administration or principal training programmes or courses as part of their formal education (21%) is raised because of the rates of 61% of the upper secondary principals in Denmark and 34% of the principals in Iceland. More than half of the principals at the upper secondary level in Poland have never had formal education that included instructional leadership training or courses.

Comparing principals who did not receive administration training across education levels, in Iceland, the proportion of principals who report not having administration training is double in upper secondary (34%) than in lower secondary (17%). As for teacher training, in both Denmark and Norway, the proportion of principals who did not receive teacher training is approximately ten percentage points higher in upper secondary than in lower secondary education. With regard to instructional leadership, a higher percentage of principals in primary education lack the training compared with the lower secondary level in all countries with available data for both education levels. Differences between lower and upper secondary levels are less consistent across countries, but slightly higher proportions of upper secondary principals in Denmark, Iceland and Mexico report lacking this training compared with their peers in lower secondary.



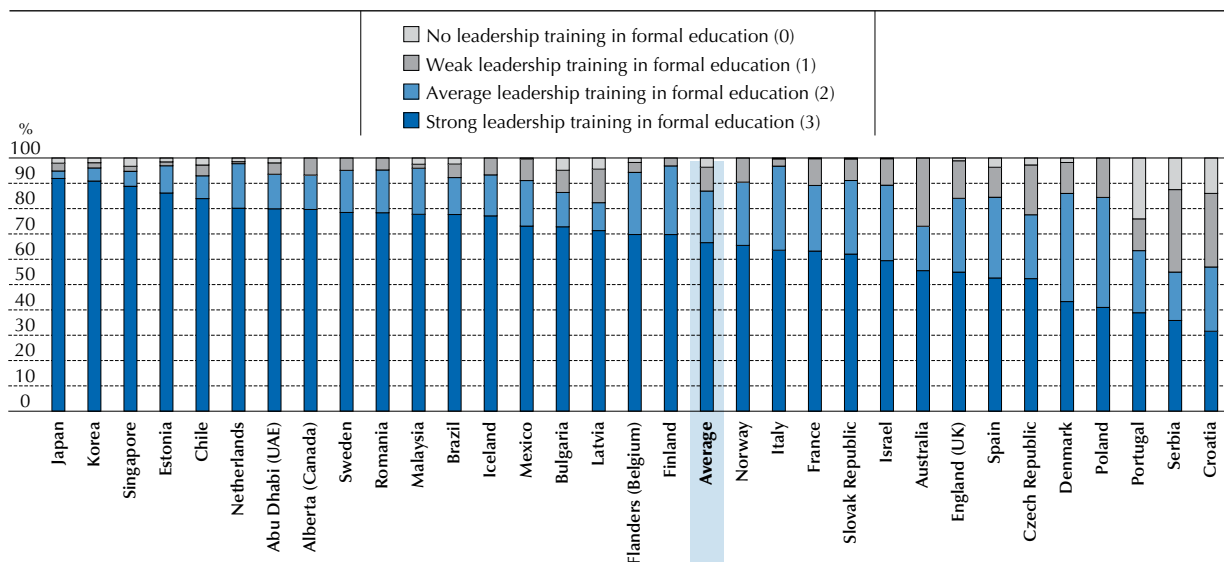
Principals' leadership training

In addition to the data about the level and type of formal training principals report having received, TALIS also measures the level or intensity of the leadership training that principals report was included in their formal education. Table 3.11 and Figure 3.7 show the percentages of principals who report receiving no, weak, average or strong leadership training as part of their formal education. The level of leadership training is measured using the leadership training index, explained in Box 3.11.

■ Figure 3.7 ■

Principals' formal education, including leadership training

Percentage of lower secondary education principals who report having received leadership training in their formal education¹



1. Leadership training index was constructed from the following variables: *i*) school administration or principal training programme or course, *ii*) teacher training/education programme or course, and *iii*) instructional leadership training or course. Responses indicating “never” were coded as zero (0) and responses indicating that the training had occurred “before,” “after,” or “before and after” were coded as one (1). Each respondent’s codes were summed to produce the following categories: 0 (no training), 1 (weak leadership training), 2 (average leadership training) and 3 (strong leadership training).

Countries are ranked in descending order, based on the percentage of principals who received a strong leadership training in formal education.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2013 Database, Table 3.11.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933041345>

Box 3.11. Construction of the leadership training index

The leadership training index presented in Table 3.11 was constructed from the question asking whether a principal’s formal education included the following elements and whether this was before or after taking up duty as principal:

- School administration or principal training programme or course
- Teacher training/education programme or course
- Instructional leadership training or course

Responses indicating never were coded as zero (0), and responses indicating that the training had occurred before, after or before and after were coded as one (1). Each respondent’s codes were summed to produce the following categories:

- 0 (no training)
- 1 (weak leadership training)
- 2 (average leadership training)
- 3 (strong leadership training)

For further information on the construction of this index, see Annex B.



More than 80% of principals in Chile, Estonia, Japan, Korea, the Netherlands and Singapore report having had strong leadership preparation as part of their formal education. The smallest proportions of principals reporting strong leadership preparation are found in Croatia (32%), Denmark (43%), Poland (41%), Portugal (40%) and Serbia (36%), including a number that indicated no formal administrative or principal training preparation as part of their formal education.

While there is merit in fostering different pathways to the goal of achieving excellence in preparation for school principals, policy makers would find advantages in developing such programmes based upon the characteristics of exemplary programmes. As Box 3.12 indicates, the Stanford Educational Leadership Institute study of exemplary programmes for the development of strong leaders identified common characteristics that provide a useful starting point for the conduct and appraisal of leadership preparation programmes.

Box 3.12. **Characteristics of exemplary leadership programmes**

Commissioned by the Wallace Foundation, a study by the Stanford Educational Leadership Institute examined eight exemplary pre-service and in-service programme models that develop strong educational leaders. All of the programmes of initial preparation that were characterised as exemplary shared the following characteristics:

- A comprehensive and coherent curriculum aligned with professional standards
- A philosophy and curriculum that explicitly focus on instructional leadership and school improvement
- Student-centered instruction that integrates theory and practice and stimulates reflection
- Faculty knowledgeable about their subject areas and experienced in school administration
- Social and professional support in the form of a cohort structure and formalised mentoring and advising by expert principals
- Vigorous, targeted recruitment and selection to seek out expert teachers with leadership potential
- Well-designed and supervised administrative internships under the guidance of expert veterans.

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

PRINCIPALS' WORK EXPERIENCE

Regardless of the level or type of education that a principal might have, there is sometimes no substitute for experience. No amount of education can prepare a person for some of the situations that might be encountered in a school, and these experiences can shape a principal's behaviour and actions.

Figure 3.8 and Table 3.12 provide evidence about the work experience that principals bring to their responsibilities. The data indicate that across TALIS countries, school principals have an average of 9 years of experience in the role (ranging from 3 years in Korea to 13 years in Denmark and Latvia). Comparatively large proportions of the principals in Korea (47%) and Portugal (39%) have less than 3 years of experience in the role. Bulgaria, Chile, Estonia and Italy are at the other end of the distribution, with approximately one-fifth of their principals having more than 20 years of experience.

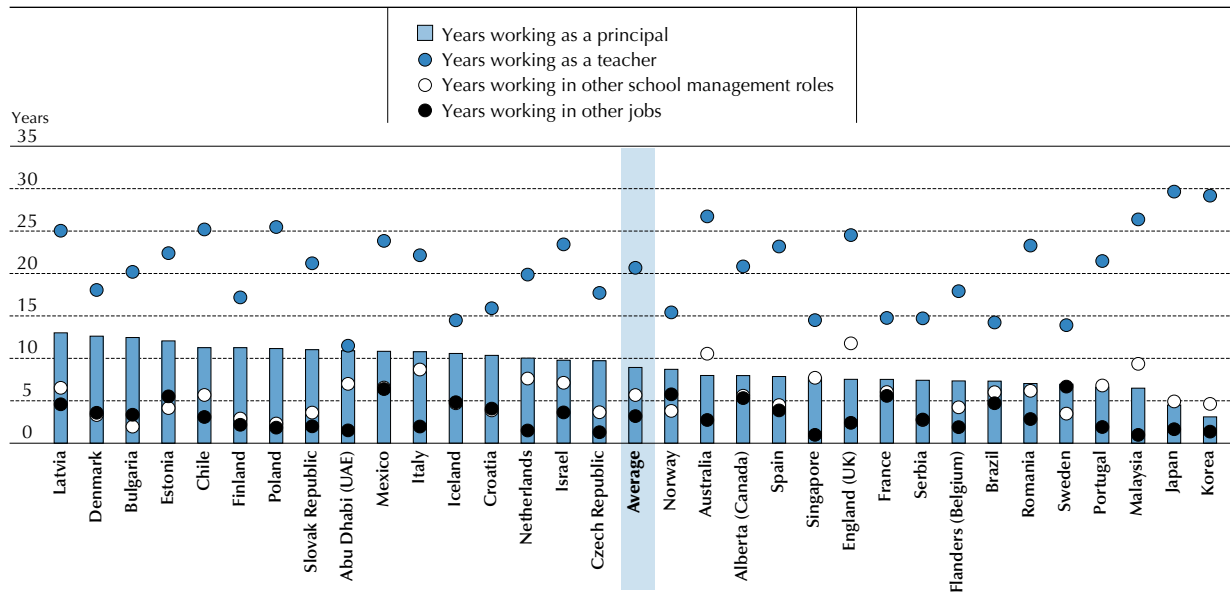
School principals bring a variety of prior experiences to their roles as principals, including working in other school management roles, prior work as teachers and experience in other jobs. On average, lower secondary school principals have spent 6 years in other management roles, with a range from 2 years (Bulgaria and Poland) to 12 years (England [United Kingdom]). The TALIS data confirm that experience as a principal is typically built upon a foundation of teaching experience. On average, principals have 21 years teaching experience. The countries with principals who have the highest average years of teaching experience are Australia (27 years), Japan (30 years) and Korea (29 years). Those with the fewest years of experience (less than 15 years) are Brazil, France, Iceland, Serbia, Singapore, Sweden and Abu Dhabi (United Arab Emirates). Box 3.13 details the work experience of school principals in primary and upper secondary education for those countries with available data.



■ Figure 3.8 ■

Work experience of principals

Percentage of lower secondary education principals with the following average years of experience in each role



Countries are ranked in descending order, based on the years of working experience as a principal.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2013 Database, Table 3.12.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933041364>

Box 3.13. Work experience of primary and upper secondary principals

Tables 3.12.a and 3.12.b present the work experience of principals in primary (ISCED 1) and upper secondary (ISCED 3) education, respectively. The average years of work experience for primary principals across countries surveyed is 11 years. For upper secondary principals in these ten countries, it is nine years. In none of the countries with comparable data between the different education levels are there large differences in the number of years principals have been in their roles.

In primary education, principals have between two and four years of experience, on average, in other management roles. Principals in upper secondary education tend to have slightly more experience in other management roles than those in lower secondary. Upper secondary principals in Australia have the most experience in other school management roles, with 12 years.

With regard to principals' teaching experience, principals in primary schools tend to have slightly more years of teaching experience on average than principals in lower secondary (with the exception of Mexico). In upper secondary schools, principals tend to have fewer years of teaching experience than in lower secondary (except in Norway).

Leading and teaching are both demanding responsibilities. Table 3.13 contains data about the teaching obligations of principals. At one end of the spectrum are nine countries in which more than 90% of the principals are employed full time (90% of their time) as principals, without the responsibilities of teaching. At the other end are countries in which 90% or more of the principals employed full time must balance their work as principals and as teachers (Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Malaysia, and the Slovak Republic). The proportions of principals employed on a part-time basis in Romania and Spain who must balance their responsibilities as principals with the responsibilities of a teacher are 29% and 19%, respectively. While it is true that principals who must also carry the workload of a classroom teacher will undoubtedly have many extra tasks to accomplish, retaining some teaching responsibilities also keeps them closer to the core job of the school. They are able to maintain a different kind of relationship with students – and possibly with teaching staff – and can even test some of the policies they are trying to enact at a school level.



PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR PRINCIPALS

The application of specialised knowledge is one of the hallmarks of professionalism (Goode, 1969; Larson, 1977; Epstein and Hundert, 2002; Gerrard, 2012). School leaders, as professionals, acknowledge their need for further development of their skills or competencies and actively engage in such endeavours. Table 3.14 and Figure 3.9 provide data about the percentage of principals who participated in a professional network, mentoring or research activity; courses, conferences or observation visits; or other types of professional development activities in the 12 months prior to the survey. On average in TALIS countries, principals spent 20 days participating in a professional network, mentoring or research activity; 13 days in courses, conferences or observation visits; and 10 days in other types of professional development activities.

■ Figure 3.9 ■


Principals' recent professional development

Participation rates and average number of days of professional development reported to be undertaken by lower secondary education principals in the 12 months prior to the survey

	Percentage of principals who participated in the following professional development activities in the 12 months prior to the survey	Average number of days of participation among those who participated
Percentage of principals who participated in courses, conferences or observation visits	83%	13
Percentage of principals who participated in a professional network, mentoring or research activity	51%	20
Percentage of principals who participated in other types of professional development activities	34%	10

Items are ranked in descending order, based on the percentage of principals participating in professional development activities in the 12 months prior to the survey.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2013 Database, Table 3.14.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933041383>

As a consequence of school improvement efforts, it is increasingly common for professionals in education to participate in collaborative professional learning opportunities, the defining characteristic of which is professionals working together to examine their professional practice and to acquire new knowledge (DuFour, 2004). The percentages of principals across TALIS countries who have engaged in professional networks, mentoring or research activities during the preceding 12 months and the average numbers of days spent by those who participated are quite varied. Small proportions of principals in the Czech Republic (28%), Portugal (11%), Romania (29%), Serbia (21%) and Spain (28%) report taking part in a professional network, mentoring or research activity during the preceding 12 months, in contrast to the large proportions of principals in Australia (84%), the Netherlands (87%) and Singapore (93%) who say they took part in such activities. The amount of time spent on these activities varies as well. For example, in 11 countries principals spent fewer than 10 days on such activities. However, the proportions of principals in these 11 countries who were engaged in these activities – even though for a short amount of time – ranged from 42% in Sweden to 84% in Australia.

Australia provides an interesting example of developing a standard for the role of the principal that takes into account the overarching goals held for schooling and the cultural context in which schooling occurs (Box 3.14). The adoption of such a standard could, over time, help elevate the status of the principal and provide guidance to their preparation, conduct and professional development.

The percentages of principals who participated in courses, conferences or observation visits ranged from 54% in France to 99% in Singapore. For other types of professional development activities, percentages ranged from 15% in Bulgaria to 58% in Malaysia. The range of the average number of days spent in each activity was modest, from an average of 4 days (France) to 37 days (Brazil) in courses, conferences or observation visits, and from 4 days (Australia, Croatia, Finland, Japan and England [United Kingdom]) to 37 days (Mexico) for other types of professional development. While participation in professional development is generally supported for school leaders and teachers alike, spending 37 days away from school each year attending courses or conferences or making observation visits may prove to be excessive given a principal's busy schedule.



Box 3.14. Strengthening the role of the principal by developing a national standard: Australia

Australia has formally recognised the importance of the role of the principal in raising student achievement, “promoting equity and excellence, creating and sustaining the conditions under which quality teaching and learning thrive, influencing, developing and delivering community expectations and government policy, contributing to the development of a 21st century education system at local, national and international levels” (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011: 2). Australia has adopted a National Professional Standard for Principals (the Standard). The Standard is intended to “define the role of the principal and unify the profession nationally, to describe the professional practice of principals in a common language and to make explicit the role of quality school leadership in improving learning outcomes” (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011: 1). The Standard is founded on requirements in three domains – vision and values, knowledge and understanding, and personal qualities and social and interpersonal skills – and represented in five areas of professional practice: leading teaching and learning; developing self and others; leading improvement, innovation and change; leading the management of the school; and engaging and working with the community.

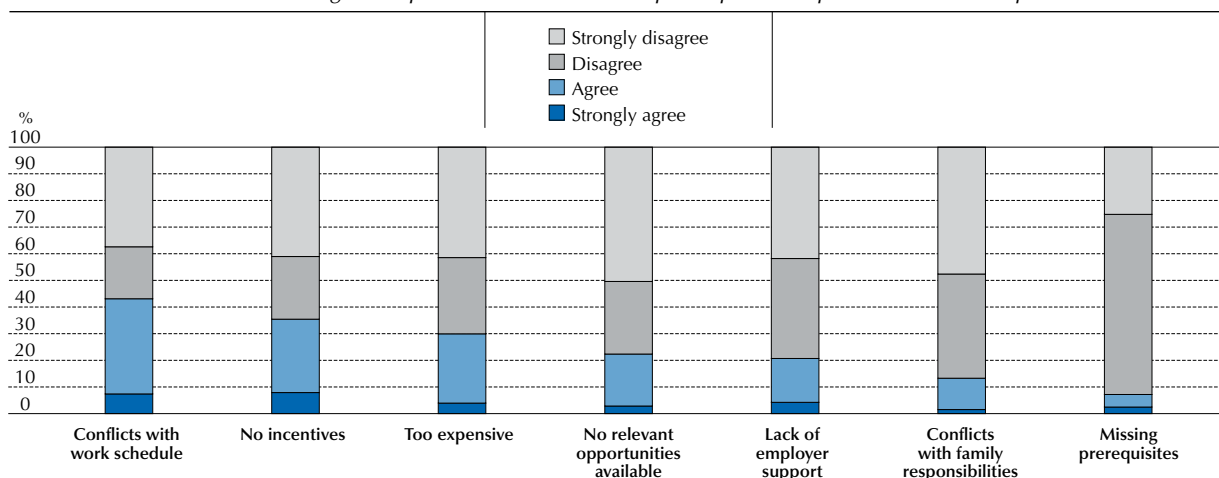
Source: Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (2011).

Participation in professional development depends upon a variety of factors, including the availability of opportunities that are perceived to be relevant, the availability of time and other resources that would permit someone to take advantage of professional development, employers who are supportive and the necessary qualifications to be able to benefit from the opportunities available. These concepts are discussed further in relation to teachers in Chapter 4. Figure 3.10 looks at the barriers to professional development that principals report experiencing.

■ Figure 3.10 ■

Barriers to principals' participation in professional development

Percentage of lower secondary education principals who “strongly disagree”, “disagree”, “agree” or “strongly agree” that the following items present barriers to their participation in professional development



Items are ranked in descending order, based on the percentage of principals in lower secondary education who “strongly agree” or “agree” that the item presents a barrier to their participation in professional development.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2013 Database, Tables 3.15 and 3.15.Web.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933041402>

Table 3.15 indicates that the proportion of principals who stated that there were no relevant opportunities available for professional development is quite high in some countries, such as Chile (44%), Italy (52%), Mexico (37%), Poland (37%), Portugal (54%), Serbia (41%) and Spain (53%). While principals in many countries indicated that there were no incentives for participation in professional development activities, large proportions of school leaders in Bulgaria (54%), Chile (59%), Italy (73%), Mexico (48%), Portugal (71%), Serbia (55%), Spain (79%) and Abu Dhabi (United Arab Emirates)



(51%) indicated that there were no incentives for participation in professional development activities. The perception that employer support for professional development is lacking is evident among a number of countries, with the largest proportions of school leaders reporting this lack of support in Italy (58%), Mexico (47%), Portugal (82%) and Serbia (40%).

In 13 countries more than half of the school leaders agreed that their work schedule conflicted with opportunities for professional development, including 5 countries at more than 60% (Australia, Japan, Korea, Sweden and Alberta [Canada]). For “conflicts with family responsibilities”, the rate is much lower than for “conflicts with work schedule” (overall average of 13% vs. 43%). More than 20% of the school leaders in Australia, Chile, Iceland, Israel, Spain and Alberta (Canada) agreed that family responsibilities conflicted with opportunities for participation in professional development. In Chile, Croatia, Japan, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Serbia and Abu Dhabi (United Arab Emirates), 40% or more of the school leaders perceived that the expense of professional development was a barrier to their participation. In Chile, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Mexico and Portugal, 10% or more of the school leaders agreed that lacking prerequisites was a barrier to their participation in professional development.

Principals’ engagement in professional development activities is an indicator of the value placed upon maintenance and development of professional knowledge by the individual principal and by those who employ the principal. As mentioned earlier in the chapter, because principals can affect the achievement of all the students in a school, improving the quality of school leadership is more important than improving the quality of a single teacher’s practice (Branch et. al., 2013). It is thus important to stimulate interest in and opportunities for continuing professional development for principals as well as to remove the personal and professional barriers to principal participation in such activities.

Thus the profile of school principals regarding age, educational attainment and gender is relatively consistent across countries. Although principals are often former teachers, a profession in which, on average across TALIS countries, 68% of all teachers are female, the percentage of women principals is generally lower than the proportion that are men. It is in the areas of preparation to be a principal and participation in professional development that a wide variability between countries occurs. In some countries, many principals report being afforded no, little, or weak preparation for assuming that role. In addition, either through lack of opportunity, interest, time, prerequisites, incentives, or encouragement, the participation by principals in professional networks, mentoring or research activities is low in many countries. Time spent in courses, conferences or observation visits is also modest. Given the increasing recognition of the importance of school leadership, countries may want to place additional emphasis on preparation to be a principal and on continuing professional development.

PRINCIPALS’ LEADERSHIP: PROVIDING DIRECTION TO THE SCHOOL AND SUPPORTING TEACHERS

Schools have multiple responsibilities, chief among them equipping students with the knowledge and dispositions they need to assume the responsibilities that come with adult citizenship. Improving student achievement, while always an important goal of schooling, has become more prominent as a consequence of increased international economic competition. The pressure to ensure that students possess an education required for a competitive economy and the accompanying demand for greater accountability for results have increased the emphasis on the principal’s instructional leadership. Instructional leadership is evident in much of the work that principals do, including ensuring that the goals of the school are well articulated, that the school’s environment is one that is safe and conducive to learning and that teachers’ effort are focused on instruction and their own instructional improvement. This section explores the impact of instructional leadership on the work principals do setting goals and programmes, their work on professional development planning and the time they spend on curriculum and teaching-related tasks. Box 3.15 discusses how instructional leadership is measured in TALIS.

Box 3.15. Description of the instructional leadership index

To measure instructional leadership, TALIS asked principals to indicate how frequently they engaged in the following activities in their school during the preceding 12 months. Response options ranged from never or rarely to very often.

- I took actions to support co-operation among teachers to develop new teaching practices
- I took actions to ensure that teachers take responsibility for improving their teaching skills
- I took actions to ensure that teachers feel responsible for their students’ learning outcomes

For more information on the construction and validation of this index, see Annex B.



Instructional leadership and principals' engagement in school and teacher development

Important responsibilities that fall on principals include providing educational direction for the school and ensuring that teachers' appraisals provide them with tools to be successful. Principals can meet these responsibilities in part by using student performance and evaluation results to develop educational goals and programmes and by working on a professional development plan for the school. The former is about establishing the school's focus and aligning its programme with those goals. The latter is concerned with ensuring that the school's staff has the capacity to reach the goals established by implementing the school's programmes. Further, principals can ensure that the outcomes of teachers' appraisals are meaningful. This section examines whether the extent to which principals engage in these school and teacher development roles is related to their level of instructional leadership. Box 3.5 describes the technical details of the analyses used in this section (see also Annex B).

As Table 3.16 indicates, in six countries, principals who show high levels of instructional leadership tend to be more likely to say that they use student performance and student evaluation results to develop the school's educational goals and programmes. Similarly, in 13 countries, principals with higher levels of instructional leadership are more likely to report working on a professional development plan for their school. In addition, in six TALIS countries (Australia, Denmark, Israel, the Netherlands, Sweden and Flanders [Belgium]), principals with higher levels of instructional leadership tend to spend more time on curriculum and teaching-related tasks (Table 3.17). Moreover, in 20 countries, principals with higher levels of instructional leadership are more likely to directly observe classroom teaching as part of the formal appraisal of teachers' work in their school (Table 3.16). What this shows is that principals who report higher levels of instructional leadership also report that they spend more time on tasks directly related to teaching, learning and development of their teachers' practices.

TALIS data also indicate that instructional leadership is related to some of the actions taken following teacher appraisal. Principals have a range of actions they can take following an appraisal of a teacher's performance, including the development of plan for further development, appointing a mentor or imposing negative sanctions.

In nine countries, principals who exhibit higher levels of instructional leadership more frequently report that a development or training plan is created for their teachers following their appraisal (Table 3.16). Similarly, the association between instructional leadership and the appointment of a mentor to help the teacher improve is positive in ten countries.

Higher levels of instructional leadership do not appear to be related to the likelihood of imposing material sanctions such as reductions in a teacher's salary after teacher appraisals, and only in five countries is instructional leadership related to the likelihood of making a change in teachers' work responsibilities after teacher appraisal (Table 3.16).

In six countries higher levels of instructional leadership are associated with reports that changes in the likelihood of a teacher's career advancement occur after teacher appraisals. The dismissal or non-renewal of a contract following teacher appraisal is more likely to be reported by principals with higher levels of instructional leadership only in Bulgaria, Malaysia and Spain, while the opposite is the case in Chile (Table 3.16).

Chapter 5 discusses the impact and outcome of teacher appraisals from teachers' points of view, which provides an interesting comparison with the data from principals presented in this section. What the data described here show is that while the relationship between instructional leadership and appraisal outcomes is not positive in all countries, in certain countries principals who exhibit higher levels of instructional leadership are more likely to follow up a teacher's formal appraisal with an action that can seriously impact a teacher's job and career. Given that, as Chapter 5 indicates, teachers value the appraisal they receive but often find it to be merely an administrative exercise, increasing the skills of principals in instructional leadership may help appraisals to become more meaningful for teachers as well.

Instructional leadership and school climate

Chapter 2 showed that in most TALIS countries the majority of teachers work in environments with a positive professional climate among the teaching staff. Data from the principal questionnaire indicate that principals share this feeling of a positive climate. Table 3.18 examines the relationship between instructional leadership and principals' reports on the factors that contribute to school climate, such as shortages of school resources (materials and personnel), delinquency in the school, the degree of mutual respect and an indication of the ratio of administrative and support staff in the school. (See Box 3.5 and Annex B for details about the analyses performed in this section.)



In 17 countries, principals with higher levels of instructional leadership tend to work in schools that are reported to have more positive school climates characterised by high levels of mutual respect. As was seen earlier in the discussion of distributed leadership, this could mean either that the climate of mutual respect already existing in a school makes instructional leadership easier or that the instructional leadership exerted by the principals promotes a school climate of mutual respect. Either way, the school benefits. The other school climate variables examined do not appear to have consistent relationships with principals' instructional leadership.

PRINCIPALS' JOB SATISFACTION

Two aspects related to principals' job satisfaction were measured in TALIS: One is their satisfaction with their current work environment, and the other is their satisfaction with the profession. Because the two were highly correlated, analyses were performed using the overall measure of principal job satisfaction, which combined these two aspects. Box 3.16 describes the measures of job satisfaction in TALIS.

Box 3.16. Description of the principal job satisfaction indices

Two aspects of principal job satisfaction were measured in TALIS: Satisfaction with current work environment and satisfaction with the profession. Specifically, principals were asked to indicate how strongly they agreed or disagreed with the following statements as applied to their job. Response options ranged from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

The first aspect (satisfaction with current work environment) was measured with the following items:

- I enjoy working at this school
- I would recommend my school as a good place to work
- I am satisfied with my performance in this school
- All in all, I am satisfied with my job

The second aspect (satisfaction with the profession) was measured with the following items:

- The advantages of this profession clearly outweigh the disadvantages
- If I could decide again, I would still choose this job/position
- I regret that I decided to become a principal

Note that because these two aspects of job satisfaction are highly related to each other and perhaps overlap (see Table 3.37.Web), the overall job satisfaction scores are used in the analyses rather than the scores for each construct separately. See Annex B for more details about the construction and validation of this scale.

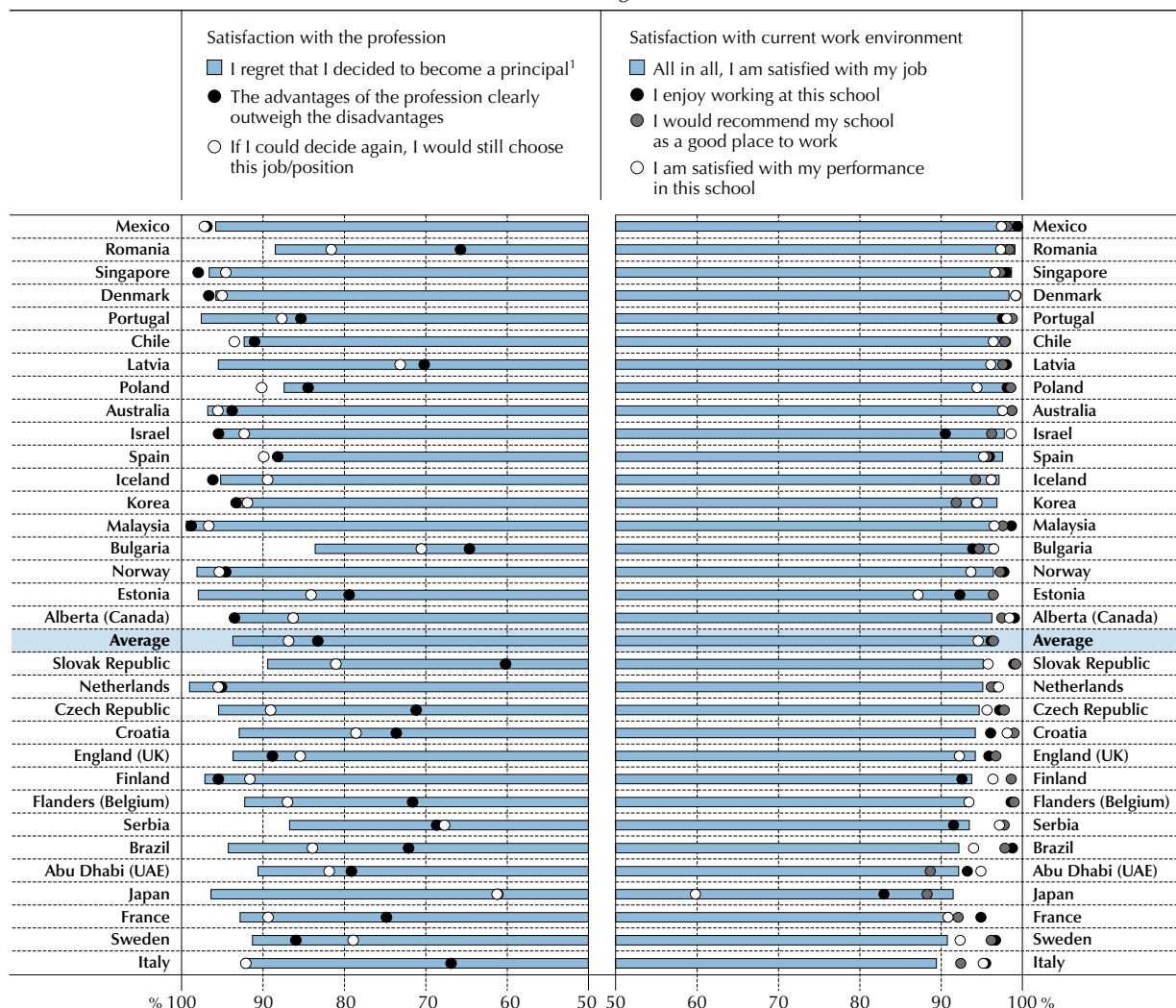
Figure 3.11 looks at principals' reported levels of job satisfaction by country and, as indicated in Box 3.16, divides the responses in terms of principals' satisfaction with the profession as compared with their satisfaction with their current work environment (see also Table 3.26.Web). It is interesting to note that across countries, there is more variation in principals' feelings about their profession than in their reported satisfaction with their schools. Across countries, close to nine in ten or more principals are satisfied with their jobs overall and generally feel positive about their school working environment. Moreover, when questioned about the profession of principal overall, more than 80% of principals in all countries feel confident in their choice of career and do not regret becoming a principal. Although more than eight principals in ten report that the advantages of the position clearly outweigh the disadvantages, in Bulgaria, Italy, Japan, Romania, Serbia and the Slovak Republic, only between 60% and 70% of school leaders report this. Similarly, although nearly nine principals in ten report that they would still choose to become a principal if they could decide today, only between 60% and 70% of school leaders feel this way in Japan and Serbia.

The TALIS data were analysed to determine the relationship between instructional leadership and distributed leadership and principals' job satisfaction. Table 3.19 contains data about the relationship between both aspects of leadership and principal job satisfaction. Principals exhibiting higher levels of instructional leadership tend to be more satisfied with their job in 20 countries, and principals exhibiting higher levels of distributed leadership tend to be more satisfied with their jobs in 17 countries.

■ Figure 3.11 ■

Principal job satisfaction

Percentage of lower secondary education principals who “agree” or “strongly agree” with the following statements



1. For the item “I regret that I decided to become a principal”, the percentage represents the principals who answered “strongly disagree” or “disagree” because of the nature of the question.

Countries are ranked in descending order, based on the percentage of principals who “agree” or “strongly agree” that all in all, they are satisfied with their job.

Source: OECD, TALIS 2013 Database, Table 3.26.Web.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933041421>

Additional factors affecting principals’ job satisfaction were explored using multiple regression analyses with principal job satisfaction as the dependent variable and demographic background (Table 3.20) and school background (Table 3.21) as independent variables.

Table 3.20 examines the relationship between job satisfaction and principal characteristics, including gender, age and years of experience as a principal and as a teacher. For most countries, these variables were not related to principals’ job satisfaction. A few exceptions include Italy, Poland, the Slovak Republic, Abu Dhabi (United Arab Emirates) and Alberta (Canada), where female principals are more likely to have higher levels of job satisfaction. Conversely, in France and Malaysia, male principals report higher levels of job satisfaction. In Croatia, Italy, the Slovak Republic and Spain, principals with more experience as a principal have higher levels of job satisfaction. In the Netherlands, Romania and Abu Dhabi (United Arab Emirates), those principals with more years of experience as teachers have higher job satisfaction, while the opposite relationship was found in Japan.



Table 3.21 examines the relationship between job satisfaction and school characteristics such as school locality, school type (public/private, source of funding), school size (number of staff and number of students) and student composition (percentage of students whose first language is different from the language of instruction, percentage of students with special needs and percentage of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes). Again, while in most countries these variables were not related to job satisfaction, in a few countries some relationships emerged. For example, in Estonia, Alberta (Canada) and England (United Kingdom), principals working in schools with higher proportions of students with special needs tended to have lower levels of job satisfaction. The reverse is true in Australia and the Czech Republic. Furthermore, in Australia, principals working in schools with higher proportions of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes showed lower levels of job satisfaction. Policy makers in these countries might want to consider the support that they are providing to principals in schools with these more challenging circumstances, with the objective of helping to improve the job satisfaction of the leadership and the staff as a whole.

Analyses were also performed to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and principals' reports of shortages of school resources (materials and personnel), principals' reports of delinquency in the school, the degree to which the school climate is characterised by mutual respect and an indication of the ratio of administrative and support staff in the school (Table 3.22). The most pronounced relationship found was between having a school climate of mutual respect and principals' job satisfaction. Mutual respect is positively associated with principal job satisfaction in all TALIS countries except Iceland, Latvia and Sweden. This means principals tend to be satisfied with their job when there is a high level of mutual respect in school.

Given that between one in five and one in two principals reported resource needs in the schools in which they work (see Chapter 2), it was surprising that resources do not seem to matter in many countries when it comes to principals' job satisfaction. Only in Bulgaria, Latvia, Serbia and Abu Dhabi (United Arab Emirates) do principals who report that a lack of material resources in their schools is a bit of a problem also report lower levels of job satisfaction. Perhaps not surprisingly, in a number of countries (Brazil, Denmark, Finland, France, Japan and Abu Dhabi [United Arab Emirates]), principals who report higher levels of delinquency in their schools also report lower levels of job satisfaction.

The data in Table 3.23 allow a further examination of the relationship between principals' job satisfaction and nine potential barriers to a principal's effectiveness. These barriers include inadequate school budget and resources, government regulations and policy, teachers' absences, lack of parent involvement, teachers' career-based wage system, a lack of opportunities and support for principals' professional development, a lack of opportunities and support for teachers' professional development, a heavy workload and high level of responsibility, and a lack of shared leadership with other school staff members.

The one factor most commonly related to principals' job satisfaction is a heavy workload and high level of responsibility. In 14 countries, principals who identified higher workloads as a barrier to their effectiveness also showed lower levels of job satisfaction. Furthermore, a lack of distributed leadership with other school staff members and principals' job satisfaction are negatively related in nine countries. The relationship between principals' job satisfaction and their perception of other barriers were inconsistent and affected fewer countries.

Few factors consistently relate to job satisfaction for principals across countries. One that does is an atmosphere of mutual respect within the school. The most common cause of job dissatisfaction is, not surprisingly, a heavy workload. It is difficult to point with confidence to other factors consistently leading to principal job satisfaction when, for instance, higher proportions of students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes or many students with special needs correlates with job satisfaction for some and job dissatisfaction for others. Further investigation into the reasons for these inconsistent attitudes might reveal important differences in the measure of support principals receive in more challenging circumstances.

SUMMARY AND MAIN POLICY IMPLICATIONS

As the literature and the data presented in this chapter indicate, the demands upon school leaders are many and diverse, requiring considerable administrative acumen and knowledge of teaching and learning. It is difficult to imagine that one person could have the expertise in all areas needed to successfully run a school, especially as some school systems continue to devolve and schools become more independent. School leaders must be visionary leaders who can inspire, motivate and develop their staff; experts in the latest teaching, learning and assessment practices; and sensitive and adept human resource managers who are able to provide feedback to staff that encourages them to grow. In addition to this, today's school principal must be able to bring together parents, community stakeholders, students, teachers and support



staff into a community dedicated to the well-being of the school's students and may, in some systems, even be required to be a savvy businessperson, able to creatively use the school's funds for the most efficient and effective outcomes. Countries must consider how to train and develop people to be successful in such a challenging role, and school leaders themselves must endeavour to find balance between their various responsibilities. The TALIS data in this chapter reveal findings that can aid in policy or programme development in these areas.

Develop formal programmes to prepare school leaders to enter the profession

There is wide variability within countries with regard to participation in school administration or principal training programmes or courses, teacher preparation programmes or courses and instructional leadership training or courses. Many principals report that their preparation did not include these experiences. On average, a quarter of principals participate in a school administration or principal training programme prior to becoming a principal. An additional 37% participate after being appointed to the position, and 22% indicate that they began such preparation prior to taking up the position but continued the preparation after being assigned as a principal.

Over time, countries are likely to reap benefits in terms of school improvement and student achievement from the development of quality professional preparation programmes for their school principals. The responsibilities of principals are many and complex. Attention to the principals' participation in teacher preparation programmes, school administration or principal training programmes and instructional leadership training should produce tangible benefits for students and increased professionalism for principals.

Provide opportunities and remove barriers for continuing professional development for principals

Maintaining the currency and applicability of one's professional knowledge is affected by many different factors, including the opportunities that are available, having the time and qualifications necessary to take advantage of the opportunities and so on. The percentages of principals who have engaged in collaborative professional development activities during the preceding 12 months and the average numbers of days spent by those who participated are quite varied. Large proportions of the principals in many countries say there were no relevant opportunities available for professional development and no incentives for participation. In more than a dozen countries, principals said their work schedules conflicted with opportunities for professional development. Countries should strive to minimise obstacles to professional development for principals, align state-supported opportunities with the country's long-term educational goals (OECD, 2013) and set standards for high-quality professional learning. Because what they do affects the achievement of all the students in a school, principals must make improving the quality of their practice a priority and must take advantage of the opportunities afforded.

There are several high-priority areas for professional development. For example, principal instructional leadership can improve student achievement by:

- Establishing what school outcomes are essential for all students
- Ensuring that these outcomes are expressed clearly in the curriculum and are supported with appropriate instructional material
- Holding students, parents and teachers accountable for those outcomes
- Encouraging and coaching teachers' use of teaching strategies that increase learning outcomes for all students
- Assessing student progress in the areas of importance at different times over their school careers (Ungerleider, 2006; Ungerleider, 2003; Willms, 2000; Willms, 1998; Woessman 2001).

Encourage the use of distributed leadership among school principals

Given a principal's importance to the school's operations and a principal's impact on instruction, it is important that being a principal be, and remain, a satisfying position. Principals who feel their schools have climates of mutual respect also exhibit higher levels of job satisfaction. Principals, through the work they do and the relationships they establish with teachers, staff and students, help to create a positive, mutually supportive climate that, in turn, contributes to their satisfaction. This is likely why personal qualities and social and interpersonal skills are one of the important areas upon which successful professional practice is based. But, as Australia's standard for principals appreciates (Box 3.13), personal qualities and social and interpersonal skills must be complemented by vision and values as well as by knowledge and understanding and be realised in leading learning and teaching, the development of one's self and others, improving and innovating, managing the school, and engaging and working with the community.



The TALIS data confirm that the position of principal is very demanding both in terms of the breadth of its responsibilities and the time that those responsibilities consume. As the connection between teachers, students, their parents or guardians, the educational system and the wider community in which the school exists, principals often feel pulled in different directions by demands that they see as incompatible. One strategy for addressing those demands is to share the work and decision-making authority with others (Schleicher, 2012). Principals who do so enjoy the climate of mutual respect they perceive in their schools and greater job satisfaction.

Ensure that principals receive training in and have opportunities to employ instructional leadership

It could be said that instructional leadership – focusing on the teaching and learning that takes place in the school – is the most important of all of the principal's tasks. In addition, the TALIS data demonstrate that when principals exhibit higher levels of instructional leadership, they are also more likely to develop a professional development plan for their school (13 countries), observe teaching as part of a teacher's formal appraisal (20 countries) and report there is high level of mutual respect among colleagues at the school (17 countries). Principals with higher levels of instructional leadership tend to spend more time on curriculum and teaching-related tasks and exhibit higher levels of job satisfaction.

Thus it is obvious that instructional leadership is important in a variety of ways. Yet of all the elements that principals reported as being included in their formal education, fewer principals report taking part in instructional leadership training than in any other. More than one in five (22%) principals report never having participated in instructional training, and 31% have had this training only after they became a principal.

Countries need to review the training that is provided to principals on instructional leadership and how that leadership is actually enacted at a school level. As recommended previously, there is an opportunity for additional professional development to be provided on instructional leadership, but principals need to be made aware of its importance and be familiar with its practices during their initial principal training as well.

Notes

1. In the analyses, the categories "often" and "very often" were collapsed into one category, called "frequently". The categories "never or rarely" and "sometimes" were combined into one category, called "infrequently".
2. ISCED level 6 represents further education at the tertiary level that leads to an advanced research qualification such as a Doctorate degree.
3. In Portugal, the principals with a "Pre-Bologna Master's degree" are counted as ISCED level 6. The way the question is presented prevents the disaggregation between "Pre-Bologna Master's degree" and "Doctorate degree".

A note regarding Israel

The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

References

- Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership** (2011), *National Professional Standard for Principals*, Education Services Australia, http://www.aitsl.edu.au/verve/_resources/NationalProfessionalStandardForPrincipals_July25.pdf.
- Aydin, A., Y. Sarier and S. Uysal** (2013), "The effect of school principals' leadership styles on teachers' organizational commitment and job satisfaction", *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*, Vol. 13/2, pp. 806-811.
- Baker, D. and G. LeTendre** (2005), *National Differences, Global Similarities: World Culture and the Future of Schooling*, Stanford University Press, Palo Alto, CA.



Bell, L., R. Bolam and L. Cubillo (2003), "A systematic review of the impact of school leadership and management on student outcomes", in *Research Evidence in Education Library*, EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education, London.

Biniaminov, I. and N.S. Glasman (1983), "School determinants of student achievement in secondary education", *American Educational Research Journal*, Vol. 20/2, pp. 251-268.

Branch, G.F., E.A. Hanushek and S.G. Rivkin (2013), "School leaders matter: Measuring the impact of effective principals", *Education Next*, Vol. 13/1, pp. 63-69.

Chin, J.M. (2007), "Meta-analysis of transformational school leadership effects on school outcomes in Taiwan and the USA", *Asia Pacific Education Review*, Vol. 8/2, pp. 166-177.

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

Day, C., et al. (2008), "Research into the impact of school leadership on pupil outcomes: Policy and research contexts", *School Leadership & Management* (formerly *School Organisation*), Vol. 28/1, pp. 5-25.

DuFour, R. (2004), "What is a professional learning community?", *Educational Leadership*, Vol. 61/8, pp. 6-11.

Epstein, R.M. and E.M. Hundert (2002), "Defining and assessing professional competence", *Journal of the American Medical Association*, Vol. 287/2, pp. 226-235.

Gerrard, S. (2012), "A response to raven", *The Psychology of Education Review*, Vol. 36/1, pp. 27-30.

Goode, W.J. (1969), "The theoretical limits of professionalism", in *The Semi-Professions and Their Organizations: Teachers, Nurses, and Social Workers*, A. Etzioni (ed.), Free Press, New York, NY.

Grissom, J.A., S. Loeb and B. Master (2013), "Effective instructional time use for school leaders: Longitudinal evidence from observations of principals", *Educational Researcher*, Vol. 42/8, pp. 433-444.

Gunter, H.M. and T. Fitzgerald (2013), "New Public Management and the modernisation of education systems", *Journal of Educational Administration and History*, Vol. 45/4, pp. 303-305.

Hallinger, P., L. Bickman and K. Davis (1996), "School context, principal leadership, and student reading achievement", *The Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 96/5, pp. 527-549.

Hallinger, P. and R.H. Heck (1996), "Reassessing the principal's role in school effectiveness: A review of empirical research, 1980-1995", *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 32/1, pp. 5-44.

Harris, A. (2012), "Distributed leadership: Implications for the role of the principal", *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 31/1, pp. 7-17.

Harris, A. (2008), *Distributed Leadership: Developing Tomorrow's Leaders*, Routledge, London.

Huang, F.L. and T.R. Moon (2009), "Is experience the best teacher? A multilevel analysis of teacher characteristics and student achievement in low performing schools", *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability*, Vol. 21, pp. 209-234.

Jepsen, C. and S. Rivkin (2009), "Class reduction and student achievement: The potential tradeoff between teacher quality and class size", *Journal of Human Resources*, Vol. 44/1, pp. 223-250.

Jeynes, W.H. (2011), *Parental Involvement and Academic Success*, Routledge, New York, NY.

Larson, M.S. (1977), *The Rise of Professionalism: A Sociological Analysis*, University of California Press, Berkeley, CA.

Leithwood, K., B. Mascal and T. Strauss (2009), *Distributed Leadership According to the Evidence*, Routledge, London.

Lucas, O., et al. (2012), "School principal's leadership style: A factor affecting staff absenteeism in secondary schools", *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies*, Vol. 3/4, pp. 444-446.

MacNeil, A.J. and D. Prater (1999), "Teachers and principals differ on the seriousness of school discipline: A national perspective", *National Forum of Applied Educational Research Journal*, Vol. 12/3, pp. 1-7.

Marzano, R.J., T. Waters and Brian A. McNulty (2005), *School Leadership That Works: From Research To Results*. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Alexandria, VA.

Møller, J. and G. Skedsmo (2013), "Modernising education: New Public Management reform in the Norwegian education system", *Journal of Educational Administration and History*, Vol. 45/4, pp. 336-353.

OECD (2013), *OECD Reviews of Evaluation and Assessment in Education. Synergies for Better Learning: An International Perspective on Evaluation and Assessment*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264190658-en>.



Pont, B., D. Nusche and H. Moorman (2008), *Improving School Leadership, Volume 1: Policy and Practice*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264044715-en>.

Robinson, V., M. Hohepa and C. Lloyd (2009), *School Leadership and Student Outcomes: Identifying What Works and Why: Best Evidence Synthesis Iteration*, University of Auckland and the New Zealand Ministry of Education.

Robinson, V.M.J., C.A. Lloyd and K.J. Rowe (2008), "The impact of leadership on student outcomes: An analysis of the differential effects of leadership types", *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 44/5, pp. 635-674.

Ross, J.A. and P. Gray (2006), "School leadership and student achievement: The mediating effects of teacher beliefs", *Canadian Journal of Education*, Vol. 29/3, pp. 798-822.

Schleicher, A., (ed.) (2012), *Preparing Teachers and Developing School Leaders for the 21st Century: Lessons from around the World*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264174559-en>.

Smylie, M.A., et al. (2007), "Trust and the development of distributed leadership", *Journal of School Leadership*, Vol. 17/4, pp. 469-503.

Ungerleider, C.S. (2006), "Reflections on the use of large-scale student assessment for improving student success", *Canadian Journal of Education*, Vol. 29/3, pp. 873-888.

Ungerleider, C.S. (2003), "Large-scale student assessment: Guidelines for policy-makers", *International Journal of Testing*, Vol. 3/2, pp. 119-128.

Vanhoof, J., et al. (2014), "Data use by Flemish school principals: Impact of attitude, self-efficacy and external expectations", *Educational Studies*, Vol. 40/1, pp. 48-62.

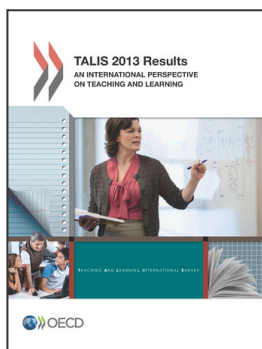
Veenman, S., Y. Visser and N. Wijkamp (1998), "Implementation effects of a program for the training of coaching skills with school principals", *School Effectiveness and School Improvement: An International Journal of Research, Policy and Practice*, Vol. 9/2, pp. 135-156.

Veldman, D.J. and J.E. Brophy (1974), "Measuring teacher effects on pupil achievement", *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 66/3, pp. 319-324.

Willms, J.D. (2000), "Monitoring school performance for 'standards-based reform'", *Evaluation and Research in Education*, Vol. 14/3 and 4, pp. 237-253.

Willms, J.D. (1998), "Assessment strategies for Title I of the improving America's Schools Act", report prepared for the Committee on Title I Testing and Assessment of the National Academy of Sciences.

Woessmann, L. (2001), *Schooling, Resources, Educational Institutions, and Student Performance: The International Evidence*, Kiel Institute of World Economics, Kiel.



From:
TALIS 2013 Results
An International Perspective on Teaching and Learning

Access the complete publication at:
<https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264196261-en>

Please cite this chapter as:

OECD (2014), "The Importance of School Leadership", in *TALIS 2013 Results: An International Perspective on Teaching and Learning*, OECD Publishing, Paris.

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264196261-6-en>

This work is published under the responsibility of the Secretary-General of the OECD. The opinions expressed and arguments employed herein do not necessarily reflect the official views of OECD member countries.

This document and any map included herein are without prejudice to the status of or sovereignty over any territory, to the delimitation of international frontiers and boundaries and to the name of any territory, city or area.

You can copy, download or print OECD content for your own use, and you can include excerpts from OECD publications, databases and multimedia products in your own documents, presentations, blogs, websites and teaching materials, provided that suitable acknowledgment of OECD as source and copyright owner is given. All requests for public or commercial use and translation rights should be submitted to rights@oecd.org. Requests for permission to photocopy portions of this material for public or commercial use shall be addressed directly to the Copyright Clearance Center (CCC) at info@copyright.com or the Centre français d'exploitation du droit de copie (CFC) at contact@cfcopies.com.