

SCHOOL LEADERS: CHANGING ROLES AND IMPACT ON TEACHER AND SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS

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A paper commissioned by the Education and Training Policy Division, OECD, for the
Activity Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers

April 2003

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Introductory Note

This paper was prepared in support of the OECD Education Committee's Activity *Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers* in its 2002-2004 Programme of Work. It was commissioned by the Education and Training Policy Division in the Directorate for Education and it complements the analyses being undertaken by the participating countries and the OECD Secretariat.

The overall objective of the *Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers* Activity is to provide policy makers with information and analysis to assist them in formulating and implementing teacher policies leading to quality teaching and learning at the school level. The activity is intended to: (i) synthesise research on issues related to policies concerned with attracting, recruiting, retaining and developing effective teachers; (ii) identify innovative and successful policy initiatives and practices; (iii) facilitate exchanges of lessons and experiences among countries; and (iv) identify policy options. The final synthesis report is to be published in 2004. Detailed information about the activity is provided in the following internet site: www.oecd.org/edu/teacherpolicy

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I. OVERVIEW

This paper suggests that ongoing developments in societies and their provision of education are reflected in the roles, recruitment and development of school leaders. The paper first examines how, as a result of these developments, the role of school leaders is changing. It then examines if school leaders can strengthen the recruitment, development and retention of teachers, as well as lift student outcomes. Evidence is provided to demonstrate that particular leadership practices can achieve these outcomes. It is concluded that school leaders remain of crucial importance for continued improvement of education. Given this importance, the paper then focuses on school leader recruitment and development and retention (or professional development). A number of implications of these various explorations conclude the paper.

The major approaches employed by governments to ensure ongoing educational reforms were identified as old public administration (OPA), new public management (NPM) and organisational learning (OL). Inconsistencies within and between these approaches were shown create their own pressures on schools and their leaders. The worry is that the cumulative demands and resulting fragmentation and incoherence could undermine the capacity of schools. When considered en masse rather than separately, these myriad views may create unintended consequences that fuel the current problems of supply and quality in the principalship. The result is a largely unattainable ideal of mythological proportions - 'the superprincipal'.

While it is argued that NPM has emerged as the dominant approach in educational governance, recent research questions its effectiveness in terms of improved student outcomes. It is suggested that a closer examination be made of OL. In order to meet the heightened, multiple expectations now placed on schools, as well as to have engaged teachers, it is argued that schools need to become learning organisations, consciously and continuously pursuing quality improvement. Within schools that are learning organisations evolve new types of relationship between students, teachers and leaders based around a reasonably common set of characteristics that include a trusting and collaborative climate, a shared and monitored mission, taking initiatives and risks, and ongoing, relevant professional development.

The key relationships in the ways school leaders strengthen teacher recruitment, development and retention were shown to include factors such as teacher satisfaction, school effectiveness, improvement, capacity, teacher leadership, distributive leadership, organisational learning, and development. School leaders can be a major influence on these school-level factors as well as help buffer against the excesses of the mounting and sometimes contradictory external pressures. A skilled and well-supported leadership team in schools can help foster a sense of ownership and purpose in the way that teachers approach their job. Conferring professional autonomy to teachers will enhance the attractiveness of the profession as a career choice and will improve the quality of the classroom teaching practice. Teachers who work together in a meaningful and purposeful ways have been found to be more likely to remain in the profession because they feel valued and supported in their work.

Research suggests that while decentralisation may have occurred from the system to school level, it has not necessarily occurred within schools. Further, where decentralisation has occurred within schools it tended to be about administrative rather than education matters. This situation should be of concern, especially given evidence teachers are attracted to, and stay in, the profession if they feel they belong and believe they are contributing to the success of their school and students.

One of the most consistent findings from studies of effective school leadership is that authority to lead need not be located in the person of the leader but can be dispersed within the school between and among people. There is a growing understanding that leadership is embedded in various organisational contexts within school communities, not centrally vested in a person or an office. The real challenge facing most schools is no longer how to improve but, more importantly, how to sustain improvement. Sustainability will depend upon the school's internal capacity to maintain and support developmental work and sustaining improvement requires the leadership capability of the many rather than the few.

Recent research shows that:

- the leadership that makes a difference is both position based (principal) and distributive (administrative team and teachers) but both are only *indirectly* related to student outcomes;
- OL, or a collective teacher efficacy, is the important intervening variable between leadership and teacher work and then student outcomes;
- leadership contributes to OL, which in turn influences what happens in the core business of the school - the teaching and learning. It influences the way students perceive teachers organise and conduct their instruction, and their educational interactions with, and expectations for, their students;
- pupils' positive perceptions of teachers' work directly promote participation in school, academic self-concept and engagement with school; and,
- pupil participation is directly and pupil engagement indirectly (through retention) related to academic achievement.

It is shown that there is a growing shortage of school leaders and a suggestion, but little evidence, of a declining quality of candidates for school leadership positions. The reasons for this shortage can be grouped under societal, system and school influences and include unrelenting change, increasing and sometimes conflicting expectations, mandates and accountability, bureaucracy (especially excessive paper work, the increase in intermediary bodies and new approaches such as whole-of government), budget cuts, an emphasis on administration rather than leadership, and a 'conspiracy of busyness', that is the way time, space and communication patterns are structured.

These influences result in the job of school leader being seen by potential candidates as too demanding, stressful, lonely, lacking support, and only for particular groups in society. One result of these influences and perceptions of the role of school leader is a shortage as well as a possible declining candidate quality, except perhaps for those schools in 'non-challenging circumstances'. We need to be very careful here that we are not 'eating the seed corn' - consuming our own future by frightening off the brightest and best from leadership of our schools.

While the evidence gathered for this paper underpins the need for school leaders to receive training, recent research finds that most receive little formal or structured preparation for the job. It is argued that this situation needs to be redressed and that any scheme for the professional development of school leaders needs to take into account factors such as the stages of leadership (intending leaders, inductees, early career and mid and late career) and dimensions of the programme. These dimensions should include the content chosen (what, who, on what basis), delivery mode used (who, where, how, when) and, measurements of success.

Recent research has classified professional development programmes for school leaders in different ways. These include the degree of decentralisation, the use of experiential learning, a focus on the system reconstruction or reproduction, and, a focus on people or the system. What is found is that in predominantly centralised systems (such as France, Germany, Hong Kong, and Singapore) there are predominantly centralised arrangements for the development of school leaders. Programmes are standardised, closely monitored, and mostly mandatory and governments maintain close involvement in the quality assurance process. At the other extreme are located New Zealand and the Netherlands. Here, there is considerable autonomy at school level, with local rather than national determination of school objectives and plans. Here, there is also a thriving local economy providing a range of training programmes and opportunities. These examples show us how two major preoccupations of politicians can be accommodated; on the one hand school level decision-making and strong local involvement in the direction of schools, on the other, some guarantee that the government is ensuring a supply of suitably trained and experienced candidates will be available to manage the stock of schools.

A number of generalisations about current trends in school leadership preparation are identified, including:

- a move from the general to the particular in the planning of school leader development;

- a shift from maintenance functions onto activities that promote school improvement and explicitly seek to raise standards of achievement;
- emphasis being given to the development of the individual trainee as well as educational or instructional leadership;
- some convergence of curriculum content in relation to two crucial areas - teaching and learning issues and the personal and interpersonal skills of leadership;
- a general movement away from unconnected 'single issue' or 'single shot' training events towards a more carefully planned and altogether more coherent programmes;
- the emergence of new partnership arrangements that have been formed to design, to implement, to monitor and even to evaluate programmes;
- the drawing together of theory and practice within programmes;
- the need to know more about the matching of methods to learning outcomes; and,
- the need to achieve a better balance between learning what the system requires of individual leaders and what practising professionals requires of themselves and their colleagues. It is suggested that this balance can best be achieved by groups of principals or professional collectives and alliances setting and delivering their own professional development agendas.

The paper concludes by identifying a number of implications arising from the earlier analyses, including:

- broaden what counts for effective education beyond academic achievement;
- better reconcile decentralisation with overall system quality;
- review school leader appointment processes and criteria to ensure they reflect the new demands being made of them;
- identification and development of potential leaders needs to be formalised, rather than be left to chance - succession planning needs to be more than just-in-time job replacement;
- review role responsibilities and levels of administrative support for principals to ensure that their priority is educational leadership;
- consider appointing school leaders for fixed periods;
- as organisational learning, or collective teacher efficacy, is the important intervening variable between leadership and teacher work and then improved student outcomes, early priority be given to supporting the development of OL in schools;
- greater attention be paid to the context in which school leaders operate, especially in relation to school size, SES and the home educational environments of its students;
- consider conferring greater professional autonomy to teachers;
- encourage more teachers to extend their work as educators beyond the classroom to the entire school;
- build the attractiveness of leadership roles in schools in 'challenging circumstances';
- find more space in all professional development programmes for school leaders for examples of leadership values in action and moving beyond maintenance/management to relationships and school improvement/ learning outcomes;
- build on the preference by educators to learn from each other by developing and refining quality network learning communities, acting and/or shared leadership roles and apprenticeships and/or mentoring; and,
- seek greater clarity/evidence of the effects on schools and the people in them of performance management and standards-based professional development before committing further resources in these areas.

II. BACKGROUND PAPER

1. Introduction: Schools are seen as increasingly important

Our context is one of rapid growth in scientific and medical discoveries, technology, including information communications technology (ICT), and the world's population. But it is also a context of growing unevenness in such developments in different parts of the world and/or within individual countries. The consequences of this situation include a blurring of boundaries, growing gaps between people, groups and countries and the end of certainty including a diminution of credibility of traditional knowledge and authority of expertise, especially in professions such as education.

This context and its consequences are forcing particular issues onto national and international agendas. Foremost among these issues are: economic competitiveness and market share; sustainability; identity within globalisation (including of information, commerce and people and their cultures); equity; and, increasingly, the role of public institutions, including for education, in helping make the most of the concomitant challenges. In fact, "Education has moved up the political agenda ... [and] is seen as the key to unlocking not just social but also economic problems." (OECD, 2001b, p. 48)

The society we have, including the identity and cohesion within that society and its understanding and acceptance of other societies, is seen to be largely created in our schools. Schools are one of the few remaining institutions to offer partnerships to families in socialisation and investment through learning. School education helps people make sense of the changes as well as fostering sustainability, including through lifelong learning. The creation, acquisition, communication and wise use of knowledge are of particular importance. In brief, society's most important investment is increasingly seen to be in the education of its people - we suffer in the absence of good education: we prosper in its presence.

In this situation of high expectations of each country's educational provision, those leading schools have an enormous responsibility. It is no wonder that the "school improvement movement of the past 20 years has put a great emphasis on the role of leaders." (OECD, 2001b, p. 32) Fullan (2002, p. 15) has gone as far to conclude that, "Effective school leaders are key to large-scale, sustainable education reform."

Not only are school leaders important but also they are generally seen to be taking on more and more roles. Leithwood et al's (2002) review of the empirical literature on effective leadership in accountable school contexts identifies 121 school leadership practices. (See appendix 1) Competency lists for school leader professional development programmes or school leader standards can be just as long. These ever longer lists of practices, competencies or standards prompt a concern that school leaders are not only being pulled in many different directions simultaneously but that they may be being asked to do too much.

Tyack and Cuban (1995, p. 14) point out in their prize-winning book *Tinkering towards Utopia*, that those responsible for schools need to be careful because education can easily shift "from panacea to scapegoat." Despite generally strong local support for their schools, this shift will be fuelled, for example, not only by higher and higher expectations but also by growing international interdependencies and improved communication making global diffusion of 'best practice' increasingly efficient.

How have these broader developments in society and in education been reflected in the roles, recruitment and development of school leaders? In what follows, this paper will:

- examine how different approaches to school governance have resulted in changed roles for school leaders (Section 2). Because of these changes, and in some cases in spite of the changes, evidence shows that school leaders clearly remain of crucial importance for continually improving education.
- examine how school leaders can strengthen the recruitment, development and retention of teachers (Section 3) and lift student outcomes (Section 4) respectively.

- examine school leader recruitment (Section 5) and development and retention (i.e., professional development - Section 6).
- conclude with a list of possible implications arising from these examinations.

2. Approaches to school governance and the changing role for school leaders

2.1 Introduction

The nature of work in post-industrial society is changing significantly and this change affects the role of educational leader. Understanding the role and the nature of preparation for it must be based on recognition of how work is being defined and organised in the 21st century. Across OECD Member countries, “school systems and individual schools are experimenting with new approaches to management that seek to run schools in ways that are right for the 21st century.” (OECD, 2001b, p. 13)

In most countries schools are largely or wholly a government responsibility and, as such, the factors shaping government priorities are potentially important influences on the perceived necessity for school reform, the resources available for reform, and the direction of the reforms. What are the major approaches have governments employed to ensure these reforms are achieved? Three approaches can be identified (summarised in Figure 1):

- old public administration (OPA);
- new public management (NPM); and,
- organisational learning (OL).

As Table 1 demonstrates, these three approaches have many similarities with other models including the OECD’s (2001d) scenarios for the future of schooling and Glatter’s (2002) models of school governance in school education.

	OPA	NPM	OL
OECD’s scenarios for future schools	Status Quo: Bureaucracy	De-schooling: Markets Networks	Re-schooling: Social Centres <u>Learning Organisation</u>
Glatter’s models of school governance	Quality Control	Competitive market	School and Local empowerment

Table1: Models of school governance

The three approaches to school governance are now briefly considered. It is likely that public school systems have elements of each with the emphasis shifting from time to time. However, it will be pointed out that inconsistencies within and between these approaches create its own pressures on schools and their leaders.

2.2 Old Public Administration (OPA)

Olsen (2002, Pp. 20-21) argues that administrations in Europe “have succeeded in coping with changing environments but they have done so in ways influenced by existing administrative arrangements ... formal organisational structures have been stable while practices have changed.” In what he (Olsen, 2002, p. 4) calls “Old Public Administration” (OPA), administrators, including school leaders, are “rule-driven bureaucrats executing and maintaining legal norms with integrity ... in a neutral way and

with the common good in mind. This perspective emphasizes reliability, consistency, predictability and accountability.”

Some (for example, Olsen, 2002, p. 16, emphasis in original) maintain that the role of New Public Administration (NPM), especially those countries forming the European Union, has been modest and that after “some enthusiasm with New Public Management principles, going ‘back to basics’ and Weberian bureaucracies have been assessed as more attractive. Several reports by OECD/Sigma have advised the CEECs [Central and Eastern European countries] *not* to copy business methods and NPM reforms in Western Europe. ... It is impossible to simply adopt Anglo-Saxon administrative cultures and such prescriptions are likely to have detrimental and disastrous consequences for the CEECs.”

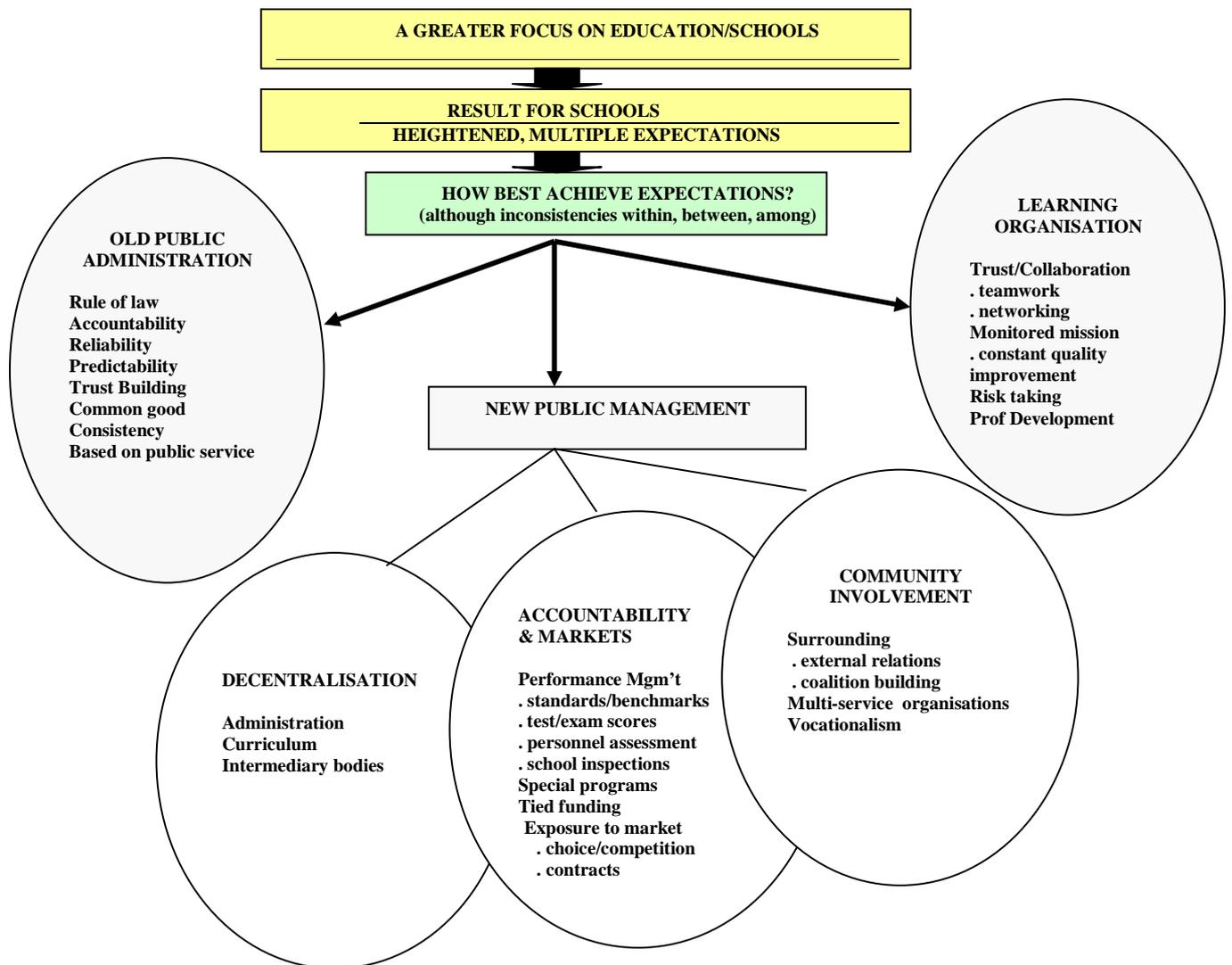


Figure1: Summary for Section 2 - The different governance approaches used to achieve the heightened expectations of schools and their leaders

However, taking a wider perspective, there seems little support for OPA. In fact there are powerful arguments being marshaled against it. For example, mirroring this paper’s introduction, the OECD

International Futures Programme conference series on 21st Century Transitions (OECD, 2001e, p. 1) point to four sets of causal forces that could drive transitions worldwide:

- “continued diffusion of technological breakthroughs;
- deeper economic interdependence and more intensive competition, from local through global levels;
- greater diversity of social status and identity, both within and between the socio-economic boundaries bequeathed from the 20th century; and
- ongoing dispersion of power and responsibility.”

It is this last causal force that the OECD sees as “leading to less hierarchical and less rigid methods for making and implementing decisions in all spheres of human activity.” The argument here is, in fact, for less of the bureaucracy that forms the basis of OPA. In brief, there is seen to be a need to move beyond bureaucracy.

2.3 New Public Management (NPM)

Despite the fact that some (for example, Olsen, 2002) believe OPA continues to be the preferred governance approach for achieving the heightened expectations of schools, it is New Public Management (NPM) that has emerged as the dominant force in many countries. The hallmarks of NPM are (Dempster, 2002a, p. 17 based on Ferlie et al, 1996):

- a reduction in government’s role in service provision;
- downsizing and decentralising the public sector;
- deregulation of the labour market;
- the imposition of the strongest feasible framework of competition and accountability on public sector activity;
- explicit standards and measures of performance, clear definition of targets and indicators of success;
- a greater emphasis on output control - a stress on results, not processes;
- moves to new forms of corporate governance;
- a shift from public funding to private sector provision (the privatisation agenda); and,
- a reduction in the self-regulating powers of the professions.

Under the influence of NPM the restructuring of public schooling has been characterised by (Dempster, 2002a, p. 17):

- decentralisation through school self-management;
- the injection of competition between schools;
- greater demands for financial accountability;
- an increase in consumer control through school governing councils;
- recentralisation of curriculum and assessment control;
- expanding the powers of school principals;
- increasing pressure for outcomes-based assessment;
- the exposure of school performance to public scrutiny;
- the assessment of teachers against employer defined competencies; and,
- tighter regulation of the teaching profession.

Whatever elements of NPM are employed they all have in common a strong dependence on effective school leadership for their successful implementation, albeit what effective leadership means is at least partly different in each case. For example, for the market element effective leadership includes being a good entrepreneur and salesperson, the accountability element requires the principal to have expertise in performance management systems and relating the results to performance-linked pay, and for decentralisation effective leadership includes building a collaborative culture and ensuring that staff and/or the community (and or its representatives) develop sophisticated group problem-solving skills.

Given the increasingly pervasive nature of NPM in the education sector of many countries (for example, for the Nordic countries see Johannson, 2002), in what follows its major elements of decentralisation, accountability/market and community involvement and their implications for school leadership are briefly developed.

2.3.1 Decentralisation

The “trend towards decentralisation acknowledges that the dynamic for transformational change in schools must come increasingly from within the school community.” (OECD, 2001b, p. 47) However, we find that there are different degrees or models of decentralisation in different countries as well as for different functions. A common approach has been to localise delivery while centralising mandated standards. (OECD, 2001b) In “some countries, notably the United Kingdom and the United States, contracting of educational services has become part of a movement to create a clearer division between those who specify services and those who deliver them.” (OECD, 2001b, p. 21) In Korea the focus of educational policy has been shifted from provider-oriented education to consumer and/or learner-oriented education and Austria is aiming to shift from ‘administration’ to ‘service’ and to orient management more to outcomes. (OECD, 2001b)

With such changes the administrative role of the principal “has evolved from the practicing teacher, with added technical and administrative duties, to the full-time manager and developer of human, financial and physical resources.” (OECD, 2001b, Pp. 20 & 24) In the Netherlands, for example, “school directors (principals) are responsible for the quality of their schools” as well as for “all personnel matters including hiring and firing, staff appraisals, and union negotiations”

In respect of the curriculum a stable model has not yet emerged. In Finland, for example, “the movement is towards far greater school autonomy in curriculum matters, while other countries such as the United Kingdom have opted for a centrally defined model, even though presently they are looking for ways of authorising and encouraging local diversity.” (OECD, 2001b, p. 9) In England curriculum decision-making has been divided between central government (content) and schools (pedagogy). In Denmark (Moos, 2000, p. 95) the notion of principals “as ‘instructional leaders’ is foreign. Teachers have always been considered ‘professional’ and autonomous both in their choice of teaching methods, and in their selection of the content of the curriculum (provided they adhered to broad national and local guidelines).”

Increased decentralisation of education systems has posed the issue of the role of local authorities and other intermediate bodies between the central state and the school as well as the role of boards or other bodies directly or indirectly involved in governing schools. The presence of such intermediary and/or governing bodies result in the need for school leaders to negotiate with multiple powers and stakeholders. Also, a growing issue is reconciling decentralisation with overall system quality. “At worst, this can create contradictory pressures and tensions. At best, it can establish multiple forms of governance and control, each with its own part in the system.” (OECD, 2001b, p. 9)

Criticising decentralisation, Leithwood et al (2002) point out that evidence of the effects on school leaders of decentralisation is quite extensive and indicates that while assumptions about the role of school leaders in decentralised settings sometimes describes what actually happens in practice, it is often not the whole story. Decentralisation is associated, as well, with a radically increased emphasis on budgetary considerations, less attention to providing leadership about curriculum and instruction, greatly increased time demands, and the need for more attention to time management.

2.3.2 Accountability and markets

A number of countries are looking at ways of exercising central control over increasingly decentralised and therefore autonomous schools. “Procedures for setting a central curriculum, for inspecting schools or for assessing pupils and publishing results at a school level are all pressures that encourage school managers to conform to a well-defined set of norms.” (OECD, 2001b, p. 51) However authors such as Tyack and Cuban (1995, p. 34) believe that it is unfortunate that, “Many policymakers have narrowed

the currency of educational success to one main measure - test scores - and reduced schooling to a means of economic competitiveness, both personal and national.” Leithwood et al (2002) argue that an approach dominated by “the establishment of student standards, wide-spread student testing of their achievement and judgements about schools and teachers based on the results ... can have disastrous unintended consequences. For students, such consequences may include, minimising their individual differences, narrowing curriculum to which they are exposed, diverting enormous amounts from instruction to test preparation, and negatively influencing schools’ willingness to accept students with weak academic records. ... [The] consequences for teachers, include the creation of incentives for cheating, feelings of shame, guilt and anger, and a sense of dissonance and alienation ... [and] to the atrophy of teachers’ instructional repertoires.”

Despite these developments, “Centrally-defined output criteria and local innovation in finding ways of meeting them are not *necessarily* contradictory; what matters is the degree to which specification of standards becomes so detailed and interventionist that a *culture* of control rather than autonomy develops.” (OECD, 2001b, Pp. 24-25, emphasis in original)

The use of special programmes with tied resources and the concomitant accountability has become another tool used by central education authorities in ensuring their priorities are given attention in schools. But other bodies such as philanthropic and commercial organisations are also increasingly using this approach. One outcome is that school leaders need to acquire the new skills of ‘grantsmanship’ and proposal writing, both for their own school and across schools. (OECD, 2001b) Another outcome may be overall school incoherence as it rushes to pick up and be judged on the latest priority programme.

“The programme of the school and the performance of principals and teachers may also be regularly scrutinised through personnel assessment or inspectorial visits by central authorities or their delegates.” (OECD, 2001b, p. 24) The form of inspection varies by country. For example, in the Netherlands, “the Inspectorate in Primary Education conducts formal visits to produce a *quality card* for each school. The results are published in league tables in national newspapers In England every school is inspected on a regular cycle by the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED). ... The system in Flanders combines school self-evaluation with a complementary external assessment by the inspectorate [including] undertaking a comprehensive analysis of the coherence between national curricular objectives and the schoolwork plan Greece has opted for only school self-evaluation due to its traditional rejection of external inspection” (OECD, 2001b, p.25, emphasis in original)

Case et al’s (2000, p. 2) study of the impact of central inspections on three successful schools over a three-year period found that teachers felt professionally compromised, intimidated and stressed by the inspection process and that there were no lasting impacts on what teachers do in the classroom. McNeil (2000, p. xxvii, emphasis in original) traced the effects of imposed standardisations from the system level into the classroom in three schools that were exemplars for high-quality teaching and learning in urban environments and concluded, “*The central message is that educational standardization harms teaching and learning and, over the long term, restratifies education by race and class.*”

If less engaged teachers means less engaged students then there should be widespread cause for concern. There is evidence that this may be the case. The OECD’s PISA (2001c) found that in 20 out of 28 countries more than one in four 15 year-old students considered school a place where they did not want to go and in almost half the countries the majority of students also agreed or strongly agreed that school was a place in which they felt bored.

“Research on appraisal shows that it is not working effectively in many schools.” (OECD, 2001b, p. 52) It should not be surprising then that an increasing number of countries are rethinking how teaching staff should be assessed. One new approach is the introduction of merit or performance related pay. In UK there is a government initiative to introduce performance management system backed by performance-linked pay that is the responsibility of the principal. (OECD, 2001b, p.27) The emphasis is changing from concern for procedures to concern for results. Teacher unions have strongly opposed such

individualisation of salaries and others (for example, Mulford, 1994) have questioned whether a principal can be both an effective 'assessor' and 'assistant'.

Clearly schools need to be open and accountable for what they do. Yet there is a risk that honest self-evaluation essential to improvement can create problems for bodies that are publicly accountable and cannot admit to failure. Three possible ways forward might include developing assessment tools that are appropriate in terms of the goals that schools want to reach, especially non-cognitive outcomes (e.g., PISA), the use of quality evidence as the basis of policy and practice, and developing a new attitudes to failure, including seeing it as an essential part of learning. (OECD, 2001b; EPPI-Centre, 2001)

Part of the logic for these developments in accountability is linked to exposing education to the market. In a market people need, it is argued, evidence on which to make their choices. The logic of this argument depends, of course, on the quality of the evidence, which, as we have seen above, may not always be particularly good. Leithwood et al (2002) conclude that "School leaders implementing market solutions need marketing and entrepreneurial skills ... [but that by themselves] such skills do not acknowledge the growing evidence ... that market approaches to accountability can be and usually are highly inequitable, not to mention of questionable value in improving the efficiency and effectiveness of schools."

2.3.3 Community involvement

Learning is no longer restricted to what goes on within the school walls. It is "now universally accepted in OECD countries that schools must relate well to their surrounding communities if they are to be effective. In societies that have been undergoing profound economic and social restructuring, the school's role needs to be related directly to the changes that are taking place around it." (OECD, 2001b, p. 42. See also: OECD, 1992; OECD, 1994; OECD, 1997) Decentralisation itself increases the pressure for new forms of governance and partnership including shared decision-making with teachers, parents and members of the community. Principals and others in schools need to "become coalition builders as much as managers of the internal running of schools themselves." (OECD, 2001b, Pp. 26-27)

The very terms 'school' and 'community' are no longer as precise as they once were. The schools' functions are being redefined as they become "multi-service establishments, incorporating child care and pre-school as well as formal schooling and recreational services" (OECD, 2001b, p. 47) These added functions have only helped to reinforce the school's long established responsibility for socialisation, morality and citizenship, that is, 'social capital'. "This role has, arguably, become even more important as the social capital generated by families, neighbourhoods, communities and other networks tends to shrink in many countries." (OECD, 2001b, Pp. 47-48) Kilpatrick et al (2002) show how important schools and their leadership can be in the revival of endangered rural communities in Australia.

Another recent development in NPM, and one linked to decentralisation, accountability and a broadening the 'community' involved in governance, arises from government frustration with established public bureaucracies and their inability to sometimes place the meeting of new challenges above what they may see as their defending territory and/or survival. One approach to this situation sees a requirement for whole-of-government problem solving with a focus on results not procedures. An example is the New Community Schools pilot programme in Scotland (Sammons et al, 2002). Once again we see here the need for school leaders to be taking on the new roles involving interacting with personnel across existing governmental agencies.

2.4 Organisational learning (OL)

Another, more recent, approach for achieving the expectations being placed on schools is OL. This new emphasis may have arisen because research on decentralisation shows "that, *in itself*, it is not enough to transform the way a school is run" and that there is a need for "school autonomy from within." (OECD, 2001b, p. 25, emphasis in original). Tactical (a series of tactics or quick fixes) or strategic (focus

systematically on particular areas of weakness and what to do about them across the institution) approaches are not seen to be as successful as capacity building. (Gray et al, 1999; Louis & Kruse, 1995; Goddard, Hoy & Hoy, 2000; Leithwood & Louis, 1998; Silins, Mulford, Zarins, & Bishop, 2000; Silins & Mulford, 2002a & b).

An emphasis on OL may also makes sense: at a time when a basic condition of our lives is hyper complexity and continual learning; where, "Policy makers are often constrained by the duration of the political cycle as the depth of any reform in education is influenced by the sequence of the electoral process" (OECD, 2002, p. 10); and where, as Leithwood and his associates (1998, p. 2) argue, it is risky even trying to predict "the future social and economic consequences of present trends" and therefore it is improbable that we can "accurately and precisely specifying the characteristics of schools adapting to such consequences."

In order to meet the heightened, multiple expectations now placed on schools and to have engaged students and teachers, it is argued that schools need to become learning organisations, consciously and continuously pursuing quality improvement (see, for example, Hungary's Comenius programme). "One cannot prejudge what works in a given educational setting. Part of the challenge for schools is to evaluate approaches as they unfold, and to be willing to adapt strategies in the light of their outcomes, as well as applying multiple strategies as appropriate to different contexts. In other words, in developing new learning approaches for students, schools themselves had to be good at learning." (OECD, 2001b, p. 3)

It has been demonstrated that, "Leaders who form effective management teams have a more pervasive influence than those who rely on their own personal efforts." (OECD, 2001b, p. 55) Skills for school leaders in networking not only within but also across and beyond schools are in demand. But some countries will have further to go in developing this collective, rather than individual teacher, efficacy. For example, Moos (2000, Pp. 91-92) reports that the "expectation in England appears to be that the head should bring his/her vision to the school, whereas in Denmark, the head is expected to initiate the dialogue with the teachers in order to build a shared vision together with them. ... In the UK, there is a traditional class structure represented in hierarchical school structures. ... In Denmark, there is a long tradition of very flat structures"

Within schools that are learning organisations new types of relationship between students, teachers and leaders evolve. "The key [is] ... to give meaning to the careers of ordinary teachers beyond the context of their individual classroom responsibilities [as] ... teachers who feel at least part of the management process will help carry forward change more effectively." (OECD, 2001b, p. 4) Also across OECD countries educators are also "trying to engage students more directly in their learning, to make them co-workers with teachers in the learning process rather than just recipients of knowledge [because] ... students do things because they are interested rather than because they are told." (OECD, 2001b, p. 2) In Sweden students themselves "have an increasing role in decision-making in the belief that they should take on responsibility for their own learning." (OECD, 2001b, p. 27)

Recent research that attempts to operationalise OL in schools has identified a reasonably common set of characteristics. For example, Sackney et al (1995) identified engaging in collaborative processes, a willingness to engage in professional learning and growth and to reflect on and experiment with ongoing practices, and ability to align activities with the school's mission. Leithwood et al (1998) listed a school's vision, culture, structure, strategies and policy and resources. Marks et al (2000) used school structure, participative decision making grounded in teacher empowerment, shared commitment and collaborative activity, knowledge and skills, leadership, and feedback and accountability. Silins and Mulford (2002a & b) found four factors defined OL in schools:

- a trusting and collaborative climate;
- a shared and monitored mission;
- taking initiatives and risks; and,
- ongoing, relevant professional development.

Mulford (1998) and others (see Section 3.6 below) believe that the identifying characteristics of OL tend to group themselves sequentially (see also Mitchell & Sackney, 1998). At the first stage is a focus on developing common understandings, honesty, and trust through dialogue, sharing, and managing the inevitable conflict involved. These learning processes are then employed to link to the outside, examine current practice critically, and develop shared values as well as a vision for the school. The processes, the content (or identified changes), and shared values are employed to actually make the changes identified, including a commitment and ability to repeat the stages, that is, to continuously learn and improve. These within the organisation characteristics are set within more or less powerful external characteristics such as district policies, especially toward professional development, the student population, and the community.

These stages may be complex, difficult to achieve and, above all, take time. Schools and the systems in which they reside may not have the time, energy, or inclination for understanding, let alone developing, OL. Examination of the list of 121 leadership practices shown to be necessary in dealing with accountability initiatives and compared with five sets of leadership standards from Australia, UK, NZ, and USA (Appendix 5) would tend to support this position. Practices necessary for OL such as building a collaborative culture, establishing and sustaining a culture of inquiry and reflection and building a culture of teacher leadership are not strongly represented in leadership standards. Other research on school and teacher empowerment and trust paints a similar gloomy picture (see, for example, Bishop & Mulford 1996, 1999).

This situation is unfortunate for the little research that has been reported (see Sections 4.1 and 4.2 below) is very supportive of OL as a strategy for successful educational change and improved student outcomes. Recent reviews by some of the most eminent scholars in the field are also supportive. For example, Fullan (2002, p. 20) argues we will “not have a large pool of quality principals until we have a large pool of quality teachers” and that school improvement “depends on principals who can foster the conditions necessary for sustained educational reform in a complex, rapidly changing society.” Southworth (2002, title, emphasis added), the Director of Research at The National College for School Leadership in England, argues that learning-centred leadership is “the *only* way forward”.

2.5 Inconsistent demands

Olsen (2002, p. 5) argues that, “in contemporary democracies administrative environments are not ... simple, coherent and imperative. ... [A]dministration operates in a complex ecology of institutions, actors, goals, rules, interests, powers, principles, values, beliefs and cleavages. Politicians [and others] ... are likely to want the administration to serve a variety of changing and not necessarily consistent principles, goals and interests.” As we have seen already in this paper, expectations for school leaders have steadily expanded, always adding to and rarely subtracting from a job description that now includes instructional, moral, managerial, participative, and transformational leadership. School leaders “...must manage educational change at a time when the character and mission of schools is being redefined, ... must be part of a new understanding about public management that is moving away from a bureaucratic and institution-led approach towards a performance-driven public sector that is more aware of the service it delivers to its users, ... [and] are having to find new, effective ways of managing knowledge, in organisations that need themselves to learn continuously.” (OECD, 2001b, Pp. 17-18)

The contexts faced and the resulting issues have placed particular pressures on schools. In turn, this situation has encouraged changes in the role of school leaders, especially as a result of developments in NPM (decentralisation, accountability and markets, greater community involvement) an/or OL. But these contexts, issues and pressures also result not only in additional but also in competing and often inconsistent demands on school leaders. The worry here is that the cumulative demands and resulting fragmentation and incoherence could undermine the capacity of schools. For example, as the OECD (2001b, p. 1) itself points out, “... the intersection of ... three demands for change by schools - to update their content, to become learning organisations and to deliver measurable outcomes - ... creates ... intense and potentially conflicting pressures.” Examples may include those between:

- system level demands, defined centrally and politically, and school level requirements;

- top-down and bottom-up change; managerial and professional/instructional leadership demands;
- assertion of a public right to know and honest self-evaluation that is an essential part of institutional learning;
- competition and collaboration.

We see paradoxes developing, for example, between:

- the radical change that may be needed to create ‘real learning’ in schools and the need to preserve stable and workable systems for instructing children;
- markets, league tables, choice on the one hand and inclusive schooling, putting the public into public education on the other;
- standards, inspection, compliancy, performativity and innovation, diversity; and,
- looking ‘East’ for fail-safe schools as the economic underwriter and looking ‘West’ for critical pedagogy and problem-solving curriculum.

Day et al’s (2000) recent case study research of 12 English schools that were widely acknowledged for their effective leadership and results identified seven tensions and three dilemmas for principals. These tensions and dilemmas “focus upon their roles not only in maintaining and consolidating what they have already achieved, but also in managing the challenges associated with moving their individual schools forward.” (Pp. 134-135) The tensions were leadership versus management, development versus maintenance, internal versus external change, autocracy versus autonomy, personal time versus professional tasks, personal values versus institutional imperatives, and leadership in small versus large schools. The three dilemmas were development versus dismissal, power with or power over and subcontracting versus mediation. Mulford (2002a & b) has argued that in order for the school leader to meet global challenges there is a need to achieve a greater balance between constant change and continuity, dependence and independence, individualism and community, and homogeneity and heterogeneity.

Day et al (2000, p. 157) believe, “The worlds of schools, like those of classrooms, hold too many variables and few neat solutions. ... effective leaders are not always successful at all times with all people ... a key characteristic is their determination and ability to continue to try to reconcile the irreconcilable.” More pessimistically, Copland (2001, p. 531, emphasis in original) states that when “considered en masse rather than separately, these myriad views create unintended dark consequences that fuel the current problems of supply and quality in the principalship. ... The result? A largely unattainable ideal of mythological proportions - the *superprincipal*.”

2.6 Summary

Countries, school systems and individual schools are experimenting with new approaches to management that seek to run schools in ways that are right for the 21st century. Three broad approaches to educational governance were identified, Old Public Administration, New Public Management and Organisational Learning. This section of the paper sought to detail these approaches and a few of their implications for school leaders. It has also pointed out that inconsistencies within and between them creates its own pressures on schools and their leaders. A speculative attempt to map some of the implications of the different approaches to governance for the degree of involvement of school leaders by area of a school’s operation can be found in Table 2. Following Glatter (2002), another way to tap into the analysis is to detail the major emphasis of different leadership functions under each of the three approaches to educational governance. A start is made on such an approach in Table 3.

Partly as a result the changes to school governance detailed above, and in some cases in spite of the changes, evidence continues to show that school leaders remain of crucial importance for continually improving education. The next two sections will therefore examine why this is so - how school leaders can strengthen the recruitment, development and retention of teachers and lift student outcomes

respectively. Given this important role played by school leaders, the final two sections will examine their recruitment and professional development respectively.

Area of Operation	Level of school leader involvement in each approach to governance		
	OPA	NPM	OL
(H = high, M = medium, L= low involvement; N/A not applicable)			
Curriculum			
Centrally mandated content	L	L	H-M
Local content diversity	M	M	H
Local pedagogy	L	M	H
Approaches to accountability			
School inspection	L	M	H
Standardisation/Testing	L	L	N/A
League tables	L	M	N/A
Exposure to market	L	H	M-L
Performance management/Merit pay	M-L	H	N/A
Administration			
Entrepreneurial/Marketing/Grantsmanship	L	H	M-L
Assessor of staff	M	H	M
Assistor of staff	M	L	H
Shared decision making			
With students	L	L	H
With teachers	M	M	H
With community	L	M	H
Capacity building			
Of school	L	M	H
Of community (Social capital)	L	M-L	H
Working with intermediary bodies	L	M-L	M

Table 2: Level of school leader involvement according to the approach to school governance by area of a school's operation

Leadership Function	Governance Model		
	OPA	NPM	OL
Key leadership role	Production manager	Entrepreneur	Coordinator/Networker
Form of accountability	Hierarchical	Contractual/Consumerist	Devolved/Consultative
Purpose of performance measurement	Monitor/Develop system	Inform consumer choice	Provide management information
Type of school autonomy	Guided	Substantial	Devolved
How school viewed by System	A point of delivery	A small business	Participatory community

Table 3: Major emphasis of different leadership functions under each of the three approaches to educational governance

3. Ways in which school leaders strengthen teacher recruitment, development and retention

3.1 Introduction

The key relationships in the ways school leaders strengthen teacher recruitment, development and retention are summarised in Figure 2.

As the background paper prepared for the ‘Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers Project’ points out (OECD, 2002, p. 6), the effectiveness of policy responses must be considered. Policies that attract graduates into teaching but then they do not remain and/or policies that retain teachers without linkages to professional quality assurance “will prove costly and do little to improve student learning.” This is good advice. It makes clear that we need to examine not only leadership practices that make teachers more satisfied and stay in or continually return to teaching but also those that lead through the classroom and school to improved student outcomes. This section will examine the place of teacher satisfaction and its antecedents (external pressures, leadership, classroom and school effectiveness, and student outcomes) and consequences (classroom and school effectiveness, student outcomes, and teacher recruitment, development and retention). The next section will be devoted more specifically to the linkages with student outcomes.

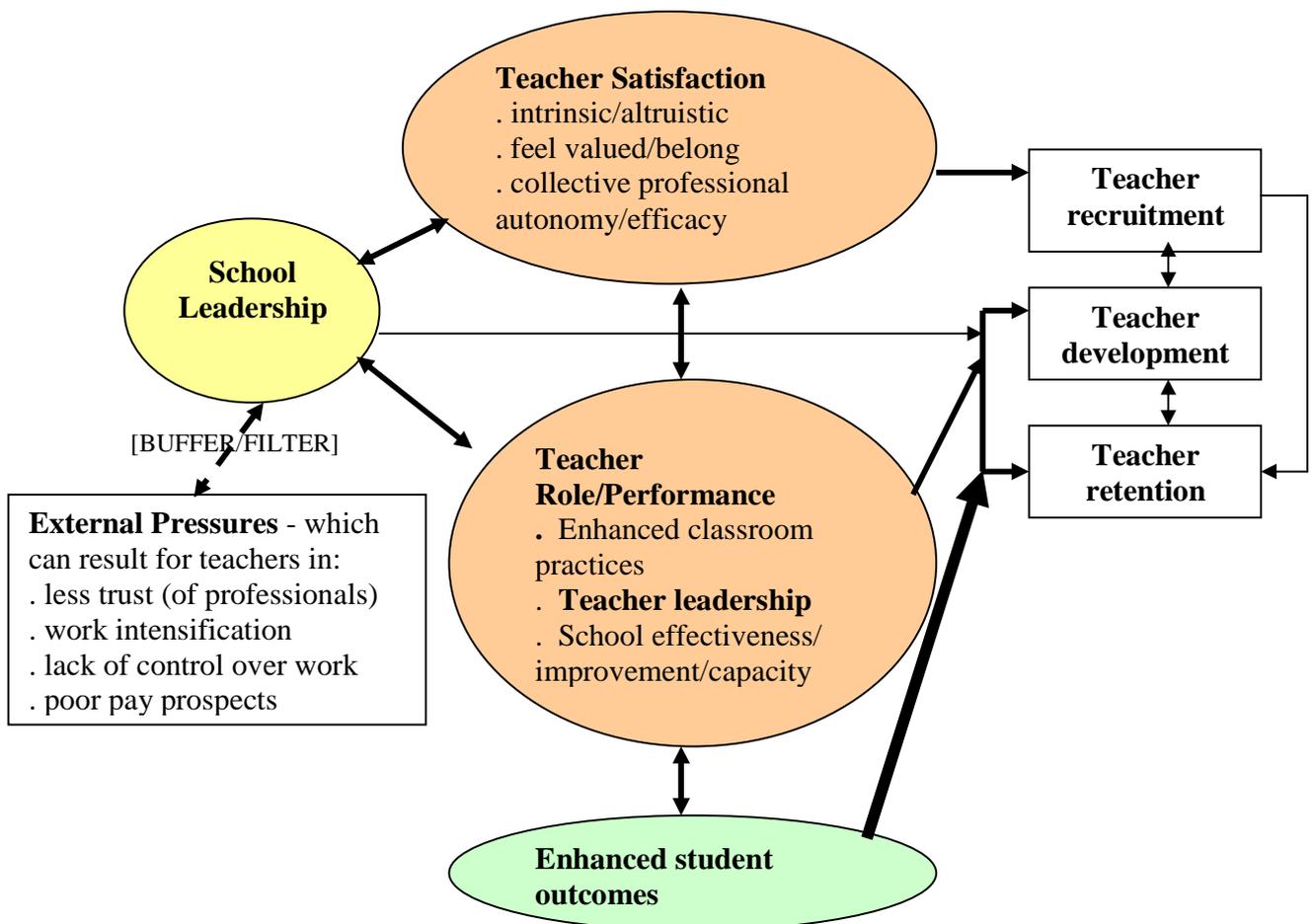


Figure 2: Summary for Section 3 - The ways in which school leaders strengthen teacher recruitment, development and retention

3.2 Leadership and teacher satisfaction

Research conducted by UK's Institute of Public Policy Research (West & Patterson, 1999, p. 22), based on an 8-year long study of 100 companies, concluded that "an employee's satisfaction with their work and a positive view of the organisation, combined with relatively extensive and sophisticated people-management practices, are the most important predictors of the future productivity of companies." The people-management practices referred to here include ones that concentrate on enabling staff to actually enjoy their work rather than feel oppressed by it; ones that encourage questioning and thinking; ones that develop cooperation through investing in social capital and mutual trust within the organisation. Recent research in England suggests that such conditions may not be a strong feature of schools. A report by the think-tank for the National Union of Teachers in that country (Gardner, 2001, p. 8) found that younger teachers in particular felt pay prospects and lack of control over the way they taught as a result of government initiatives, were causing them to question their commitment to the profession. "Most teachers argued consistently that centrally driven educational reform meant that they experienced change as never-ending barrage of externally imposed, randomly timed and badly managed initiatives that they had little constructive role in helping to shape." As stress was purported to be a widespread feature of work in teaching in England, Troman (2000) studied an opportunity sample of 20 teachers referred to a local authority Occupational Health Unit as experiencing stress. The study found that the intensification of teachers' work was involved in eroding positive staff relationships. Changing trust relations in high modernity (including public distrust of expert systems, professionals) were found to be shaping the social relations of low-trust schooling and impacting negatively on teachers' physical and emotional well being and their collegial professional relations.

School leaders can be a major influence on such school-level factors as well as help buffer against the excesses of the mounting and sometimes contradictory external pressures. As the analytical framework for OECD's 'Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers Project' (OECD, 2002, p. 8) argues, "A skilled and well-supported leadership team in schools can help foster a sense of ownership and purpose in the way that teachers approach their job. ... conferring professional autonomy to teachers will enhance the attractiveness of the profession as a career choice and will improve the quality of the classroom teaching practice." (OECD, 2002, p. 14) Spencer (2001, p. 814) makes clear that the "single most powerful recruiter of teachers are schools themselves. People who have had positive experiences in school can prolong that experience by becoming teachers."

Once in the profession, intrinsic rewards are consistently rated highest in studies of teacher satisfaction. For example, annual surveys administered to teachers over the past several decades reflect teachers' altruism as one of the most common reasons for entering teaching. Teachers who work together in a meaningful and purposeful way have also been found to be more likely to remain in the profession because they feel valued and supported in their work. (Beane 1998; Bath 1999) Little (1995) is one researcher who has found clear evidence of the positive effect of teacher leadership on teachers' self-efficacy and levels of morale. In contrast, Blasé and Blasé's (2002) study of 50 exemplary teachers in U.S.A. and Canada who believed they had experienced significant principal mistreatment found that the adverse effects included early and long-term psychological and emotional problems, physical and physiological problems, damaged schools, and ultimately leaving the job. Unfortunately these researchers also found that workplace abusers often target the bold, best and brightest teachers.

3.3 Leadership and teacher role/performance

"In decentralised school settings ... principals have the autonomy to develop two very different leadership models:

- a more hierarchical and directive model, or
- a more inclusive model which brings teachers in particular, and the local school community into the frame." (Riley & Louis, 2000, p. 216)

Research on decision making in Australian primary (Mulford et al, 2000) and secondary (Mulford et al, 2001) schools found that the more positively teachers viewed the decision making processes in the

school the higher the degree of influence and control they perceived to be exerted by education staff groups in the school. Ongoing analysis of this data base (Mulford et al, in press) shows that where decision making is perceived by teachers in secondary schools as collegial, cooperative and consultative and providing adequate opportunities for participation it will be more likely to lead to positive student perceptions about their school and teachers as well as perceptions about relationships and their own performance than where decision making is more top-down, executive, or does not foster widespread teacher involvement.

However, the results also show that while decentralisation may have occurred from the system to school level it had not necessarily occurred within schools and where it had it tended to be about administrative rather than education matters. These results are supported by other research. Gray (2001, p. 13) points out that in England teachers “note considerably greater changes in areas to do with their schools’ management and organisation than in ethos, culture or teaching ... classroom-level ‘changes’ were far less frequent than school-wide initiatives.” From case studies in nine Scottish secondary schools Adler et al (1997, Pp. 6-7) also concluded that implementation of devolved school management “has, so far, fallen short of transforming the culture and working patterns of schools but had contributed to a dramatic change in the role and status of headteacher.” Schools “seemed able ‘to respond more quickly to changing needs and priorities’, but this was mainly in terms of repairs, maintenance and equipment.”

Teachers will be attracted to, and stay in, the profession if they feel they belong and believe they are contributing to the success of their school and students. Louis and Kruse (1995) have shown the important role of school-level leadership in the development of a professional community. Teacher morale, efficacy, conditions of work, and professional autonomy have all been shown to be crucial to the emotional lives of teachers. (Hargreaves, 2000) “There is no doubt that teachers themselves prefer principals who are honest, communicative, participatory, collegial informal, supportive and demanding and reasonable in their expectations with a clear vision for the school - principals who work ‘with’ rather than ‘through’.” (Day et al, 2000, p. 20)

Day et al (2000, p. 160) conclude that, “Research findings from diverse countries and different school contexts have revealed the powerful impact of leadership processes related to school effectiveness and improvement. ... Essentially, schools that are effective and have the capacity to improve are led by headteachers who make a significant and measurable contribution to the effectiveness of their staff.” Research on school leaders in Denmark, Scotland, England and Australia by MacBeath (1998, p. 63) identified a number of characteristics of effective leaders including “Good leaders are in the thick of things, working alongside their colleagues”, “respecting teachers’ autonomy, protecting them from extraneous demands”, and “look ahead, anticipate change and prepare people for it so that it doesn’t surprise or disempower them.” Durland and Teddlie (1996) posit a ‘Centrality-Cohesiveness Model of Differentially Effective Schools’. Differentially effective schools can be distinguished by the cohesiveness of the staff (‘webbed’ versus ‘stringy’) and the centrality of the leadership within the school. ‘Well-webbed’ structures and ‘central’ leadership were found to be more effective than those based on cliques, or ‘stringy’ structures, and a perceived lack of leadership.

3.4 Teacher leadership

One of the most congruent findings from studies of effective leadership in schools is that authority to lead need not be located in the person of the leader but can be dispersed within the school in between and among people. (MacBeath 1998; Day et al, 2000) There is a growing understanding that leadership is embedded in various organisational contexts within school communities, not centrally vested in a person or an office. To illustrate, a recent study in USA by McLaughlin and Talbert (2001) that examined principals’ effects on teachers’ community, instructional practices, and careers found no instances of leaders who created extraordinary contexts for teaching by virtue of their own unique visions; nor did the study reveal any common patterns of strong principals’ characteristics. Successful principals turned out to be men and women with varied professional backgrounds who worked in collaboration with teacher leaders and showed respect for the teaching culture. They found various ways to support teachers in getting the job done. “The leadership of these principals was not superhuman;

rather, it grew from a strong and simple commitment to make schools work for their students and to build teachers' determination and capacity to pursue this collective goal." (Copland, 2001, p. 532)

Harris and Muijs (2002, p. 1) argue that, "the real challenge facing most schools is no longer how to improve but more importantly, 'how to sustain improvement?'" Further, they argue that, "Sustainability will depend upon the school's internal capacity to maintain and support developmental work ... [and that] sustaining improvement requires the leadership capability of the many rather than the few and that improvements in learning are more likely to be achieved when leadership is instructionally focussed and located closest to the classroom." In other words, Harris and Muijs (2002, p.2) are supporting the importance of teacher leadership, "a form of collective leadership in which teachers develop expertise by working collaboratively." Research on teacher leadership and improved student outcomes from Australia (Crowther, 2000 and Silins & Mulford, 2002a & b), Canada (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000), USA (Louis & Marks, 1998) supports this position.

Harris and Muijs (2002, Pp. 3-4) state that, "one of the main barriers to teacher leadership concern the 'top-down' leadership model that still dominates in many schools. The possibility of teacher leadership in any school will be dependent upon whether the head and the senior management team within the school relinquishes power to teachers and the extent to which teachers accept the influence of colleagues ... heads will therefore need to become 'leaders of leaders' striving to develop a relationship of trust with staff, and encouraging leadership and autonomy throughout the school." To generate and sustain teacher leadership is seen as requiring not only empowerment but also time and opportunities for continuous professional development.

Effective teacher leadership also requires structural change. As Barth (2001, p. 115, emphasis in original) has points out: "To capture the potential of teacher leaders, the profession needs to invent, expand, and honour a variety of opportunities for teacher leadership so that there will be more choices than being 'either' a principal or a teacher. The career ladder for teachers has precious few rungs. If more widespread teacher leadership is to be attained in our schools, educators will also have to explore multiple conceptions of the teacher's role: team leader, lead teacher, teacher researcher, master teacher. There is no more important form of 'school restructuring.' Only when many such roles exist within our profession will the potential to benefit schools that resides in teacher leadership and teachers themselves be realised. In the next decade, 2.2 million new teachers will be needed to staff America's schools. Approximately two-thirds of the entire teaching profession will be replaced. Thus, the coming decade brings with it a profound opportunity to *re-create* the teaching profession."

A longitudinal study of effective schools in disadvantaged areas in UK (Maden, 2001, p. 335) found "one thing that is more sharply defined in these eleven schools in the year 2000, compared to 1995, is the wider environment's contribution to the school's success." These contextual factors included local community, government policy, inspection, multiple priority programs, and a push for local identity, such as through the Celtic lands movement. In discussing the levers of change and improvement in these schools, Maden (2001, Pp. 319-321) states that, "It is tempting to dwell solely on the headteacher as a kind of miracle worker, but these heads know that, above all else, securing improvement comes through the hearts and minds of teachers" and that, "It is probable that 'school capacity' is the single most important matter in trying to identify how and why some schools maintain and sustain improvement." As a major part of this 'capacity', "The spelling out of values and core beliefs is important. ... Such values are the school's 'cultural glue', without which individual empowerment and diversity would not be possible."

3.5 The relationship between role and distributive leadership and organisational learning

Mulford and Silins' (2001) have recently made clearer the relationships among the variables discussed above. Their Leadership for Organisational Learning and Student Outcomes (LOLSO) research was designed to require four phases of data collection and analysis conducted over four years and allowed for iterative cycles of theory development and testing, using multiple forms of evidence. Included in this design were surveys of 3,500 Year 10 students and 2,500 of their teachers and principals from half the

secondary schools in South Australia and all the secondary schools in Tasmania (a total of 96 Australian schools). Two years later the South Australian Year 12 students, teachers and principals were resurveyed. The LOLSO research demonstrated clearly that the best leadership for organisational learning (and a community focus) was a principal skilled in transformational leadership and administrators (deputy principals, heads of department) and teachers who are actively involved in the core work of the school (shared or distributive leadership). What was shown to be especially important was that staffs were actively and collectively participating in the school and that they felt that their contributions were valued. These relationships are summarised in Figure 3.

The transformational school principal was found to focus on:

- *Individual Support* – providing moral support, showing appreciation for the work of individual staff and taking account of their opinions.
- *Culture* – promoting an atmosphere of caring and trust among staff, setting the tone for respectful interaction with students, and demonstrating a willingness to change practices in the light of new understandings.
- *Structure* – establishing a school structure that promotes participative decision making, supporting delegation and distributive leadership, and encouraging teacher decision-making autonomy.
- *Vision and Goals* – working toward whole-staff consensus on school priorities and communicating these to students and staff to establish a strong sense of overall purpose.
- *Performance Expectation* – having high expectations for students and for teachers to be effective and innovative.
- *Intellectual Stimulation* – encouraging staff to reflect on what they are trying to achieve with students and how they are doing it; facilitates opportunities for staff to learn from each other and models continual learning in his or her own practice.

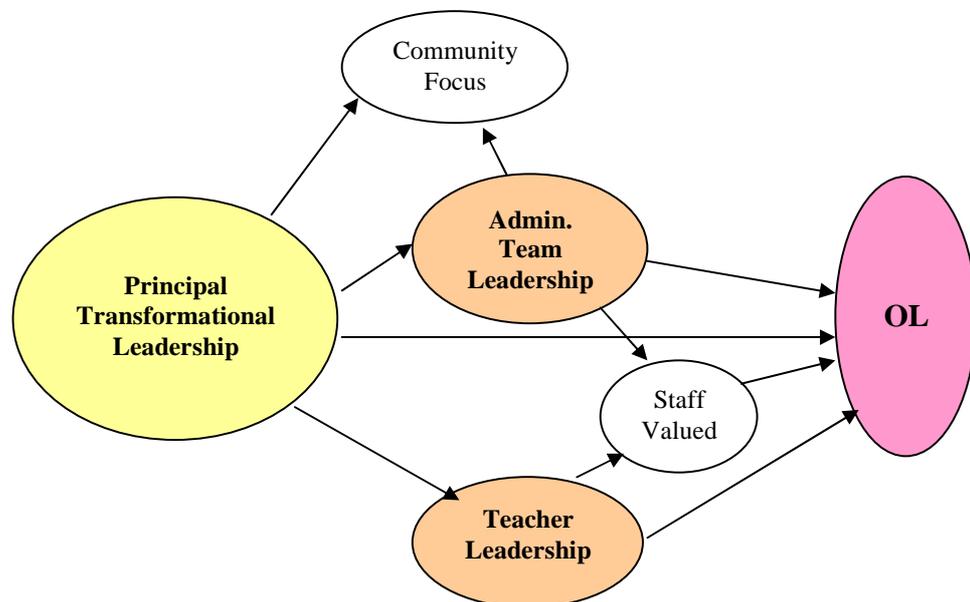


Figure 3: Role and distributive leadership for organisational learning

The wording here is important. For example, it is ‘working towards whole-staff consensus on school vision’ not ‘arriving with a vision for others to implement’. Barnett, McCormick, and Conners’ (2001,

p. 43) study in 12 Australian secondary schools found that having a principal that was too 'inspirational' resulted in a negative association with teacher perceptions of intrinsic motivation for learning in students. These authors conclude that, "a visionary/inspirational principal may distract teachers from concentrating on teaching and learning"

OL in the LOLSO study (Silins & Mulford, 2002a, b, & c) was found to involve a clear sequence of factors and the higher teachers were found to rate the school on these dimensions the more positively teachers' work was perceived in classrooms by their students and the better the student outcomes (elaborated in the next section). The sequential factors were:

- establishing a trusting and collaborative climate;
- followed by having a shared and monitored mission;
- and then taking initiatives and risks;
- within a context of on-going, relevant professional development.

3.6 Development - Turning research into policy and practice

Other research confirms this developmental sequence in leadership and OL (see also Section 2.4 above). As a result of their more than 10 years experience as principals of alternative high schools in New York city, Mohr and Dichter (2001) outline the developmental stages that their school staff went through en route to becoming learning organisations:

- honeymoon - sense of community emerges;
- conflict - the honeymoon is over;
- confusion - what's the role of the leader?;
- messy - now things are even less clear;
- scary - where are the authority and accountability?;
- mature - a learning community is born.

Mitchell and Sackney (1998) found that organisational learning in a Canadian primary school involved four processes, three basic assumptions, as well as moving through three distinct phases. Of the four processes, two were cognitive and two affective.

- The cognitive processes of reflection and conversation enabled the teachers to become aware of their practices and of those of their colleagues, to assess the desirability of those practices, and to discover new possibilities.
- The affective processes of affirmation [of each other as professionals] and invitation [into school deliberations] served to create positive working relationships by affirming the professional capabilities of individuals and by valuing the contributions of all staff members.

These four processes were founded upon three basic assumptions that:

- each individual was responsible for the welfare of the group and the success of the school;
- diversity among individuals was recognized, honoured, and valued; and,
- psychological safety would be maintained in group deliberations.

As well, the four processes moved through three phases:

- naming and framing to clarify positions and opinions;
- analysing and integrating especially when new ideas are opened up for possible experimentation; and,
- applying and experimenting.

Indicators of organizational learning were found to emerge differentially at each of the three phases thus implying that these behaviours and processes do not develop overnight, but rather build on one another over time

This developmental nature of organisational learning highlighted for Mitchell and Sackney (1998) the importance of the 'naming and framing' and 'analyzing and integrating' phases. The comfort level with

organizational learning grew as teachers develop their own understandings about the concept, analyzed their own practices in the light of those understandings, and applied appropriate aspects of what they had learned. Framing is an active process, and teachers need adequate time to talk about and to reflect upon initiatives.

Building from case studies of two urban, public middle schools Achinstein (2002) warns that when teachers enact collaborative reforms in the name of 'community', what emerges is often conflict. But conflict is found to be central to an effective community. How teachers manage conflicts, whether they suppress or embrace their differences, may help define the community borders and ultimately the potential for organisational learning and change.

A related area here is the research on developing partnership in and with a school's community. A number of researchers have conceptualised the process of developing partnerships in and with the community in terms of a lifecycle, moving from a looser structure and more informal relationships in the earlier stages, to a tighter structure and more formalised relationships in the later planning and delivery stages (see, for example, Kearns, Murphy & Villiers 1996; Lane & Dorfman 1997; Henton, Melville & Walesh 1997; Shimeld 2001a; Kilpatrick et al. 2002). Kilpatrick et al. (2002) identified five stages in this process:

- trigger;
- initiation;
- development;
- maintenance; and,
- sustainability.

This five-stage process is conceived of as cyclical rather than linear, in that the knowledge gained from each stage is then fed back into the partnership development process (Henton, Melville & Walesh 1997; Shimeld 2001b; Kilpatrick et al. 2002).

During the initiation stage the seeds of collaborative leadership are sown (Chrislip & Larson 1994). At this stage the process is still informal, as potential stakeholders are identified, and community meetings held to build support for the initiative. In the development stage represents a clear shift from informal meetings and gestures of support, to a more formal relationship between partners (Kilpatrick et al. 2002). During this stage, relationships become more structured, usually through the formation of a management committee, reflecting a greater shift in ownership from individual leaders to the stakeholder group. During the development stage, a good deal of time and attention is given to matters such as the location and structure of partnership meetings, to ensure support for the partnership at both a managerial and operational level (Cumming 1992).

Research (Kilpatrick et al 2002) suggest that it is at the maintenance stage that stakeholders are able to take the time to critically reflect on the identity of the partnership and its collective efficacy in terms of outcomes, and to celebrate some interim successes. This sense of shared identity is central to the development of community social capital (Falk & Kilpatrick 2000). As noted in Kilpatrick et al. (2002), during the final stage, sustainability, school and community renew their vision and goals and scan for opportunities and new problems in relation to the school–community linkage. At this stage there is evidence of ownership of the leadership process by all stakeholders, and clear evidence of a shift from narrow self interests to broader community concerns, as described by Chrislip and Larson (1994).

The literature indicates that different leadership roles are needed at different stages of the developing partnership process. For example, in the early stages, leaders need to act as animators (Bass 2000; Henton, Melville & Walesh 1997), motivators and networkers, gradually being replaced by creators (Bass 2000), teachers and conveners. In the mid stages of partnership development, integrators, drivers, and sustainers are needed. The later stages require leaders to act as mentors and as agitators for continued change. (Kilpatrick, et al, 2002)

Consistent with the earlier reported in-school research, Kilpatrick et al (2002) found that leadership for effective school–community partnerships is a process that gradually transfers leadership from the hands

of a small number of individuals at the trigger and initiation stages, to a wider group, representative of community interests, at the development, maintenance and sustainability stages. There is also a stronger focus on facilitative roles during the earlier stages of the process (trigger and initiation stages) as individuals and groups learn to work together. As the group gradually becomes more comfortable working together, there is a greater focus during the development phase on delivery roles, as procedures are put in place to allow the partnership to meet its objectives. In the later stages of partnership development the focus of leadership roles tends to move towards the facilitative again, as partnerships begin to explore new initiatives and new ways of involving school and community in community development projects. The dual focus on facilitative and delivery roles supports research by Edwards et al. (2000) into the purpose and orientation of partnerships. As Henton, Melville and Walesh (1997) conclude, it seems unlikely one person would be skilled in all roles. Effective leadership through partnerships “is shared by many individuals at various times depending in the situation and the required leadership skills” (Langone & Rohs 1995, p. 253).

In a similar vein to the above, Mulford (2002b) has recently suggested that the factors that make up school principal transformational leadership (see Section 3.5 above) are sequential with individual support and culture preceding structure, vision and goals and performance expectations which, in turn, precede intellectual stimulation.

Understanding concepts such as the developmental nature of OL, community partnerships and leadership can assist in better translating the research into policy and practice. Developmental models, for example, can help us

- understand better the intricacies involved in moving a school, or part of a school, from where it is now to becoming truly a place that attracts and retains teachers and truly effective at learning;
- target appropriate interventions to ensure more effective progression through any developmental stages as well as achieving the ultimate goal of being a place that is attractive for staff and student learning. In targeting interventions recognition will need to be given to the fact that it is a journey and that actions at one stage may be inappropriate, or even counterproductive, at another stage. For example, one of the preliminary but controversial findings from the LOLSO research is that the only hint of a direct relationship between the school principal’s leadership and student outcomes, specifically student engagement in school, is a negative one. One interpretation of this finding is that the greater the student engagement in school the less the need for leadership (‘when the best leader’s work is done, the people say, we did it ourselves’). Another interpretation is that the relationship is curvilinear, that is, beyond some as yet undefined point the principal’s attempts to work directly with students rather than indirectly through teachers starts to have negative effects on teacher and student outcomes;
- understand that achieving balanced learning/development may, in fact, mean that a school, leaders and teachers recognise and understand such stages and can take the appropriate action without being ‘bowled over’ by the change that surrounds them;
- understand that a school will need to be evaluated differently depending on the stage it has reached; and,
- understanding that achieving OL will not be without difficulties and that one of the difficulties is to achieve greater self-determined balances among competing pressures/barriers.

A lack of time and professional isolation are major barrier to collaborative endeavours. Donaldson (2001, p. 11) describes some major attributes of schools that contribute to what he calls a “leadership-resistant architecture” reflected in a “conspiracy of business.” There is, according to Donaldson, little time for the school leader to convene people to plan, organize, and follow through. Contact and the transaction of business often take place ‘catch-as-catch-can’. Opinion setting and relationship building in schools he argues are mostly inaccessible and even resistant to the principal’s formal attempt to guide and structure the direction of the school. The larger the school, the more complex and impersonal the environment, and the fewer the opportunities a principal is likely to have for individual relationship building or problem solving.

Yet if the links outlined in this section are accepted, then leadership is necessary for teacher satisfaction, school effectiveness, improvement and capacity, and indirectly for positive student outcomes (expanded in the next section). As summarised in Figure 2, these outcomes lead differentially to teacher recruitment, development and retention.

4. Ways in which school leaders lift student outcomes

4.1 The Leadership for Organisational Learning and Student Outcomes (LOLSO) study

The key relationships among leadership, organisational learning and student outcomes given a range of contexts established through the LOLSO research (Silins & Mulford, 2002a, b & c) are summarised in Figure 4.

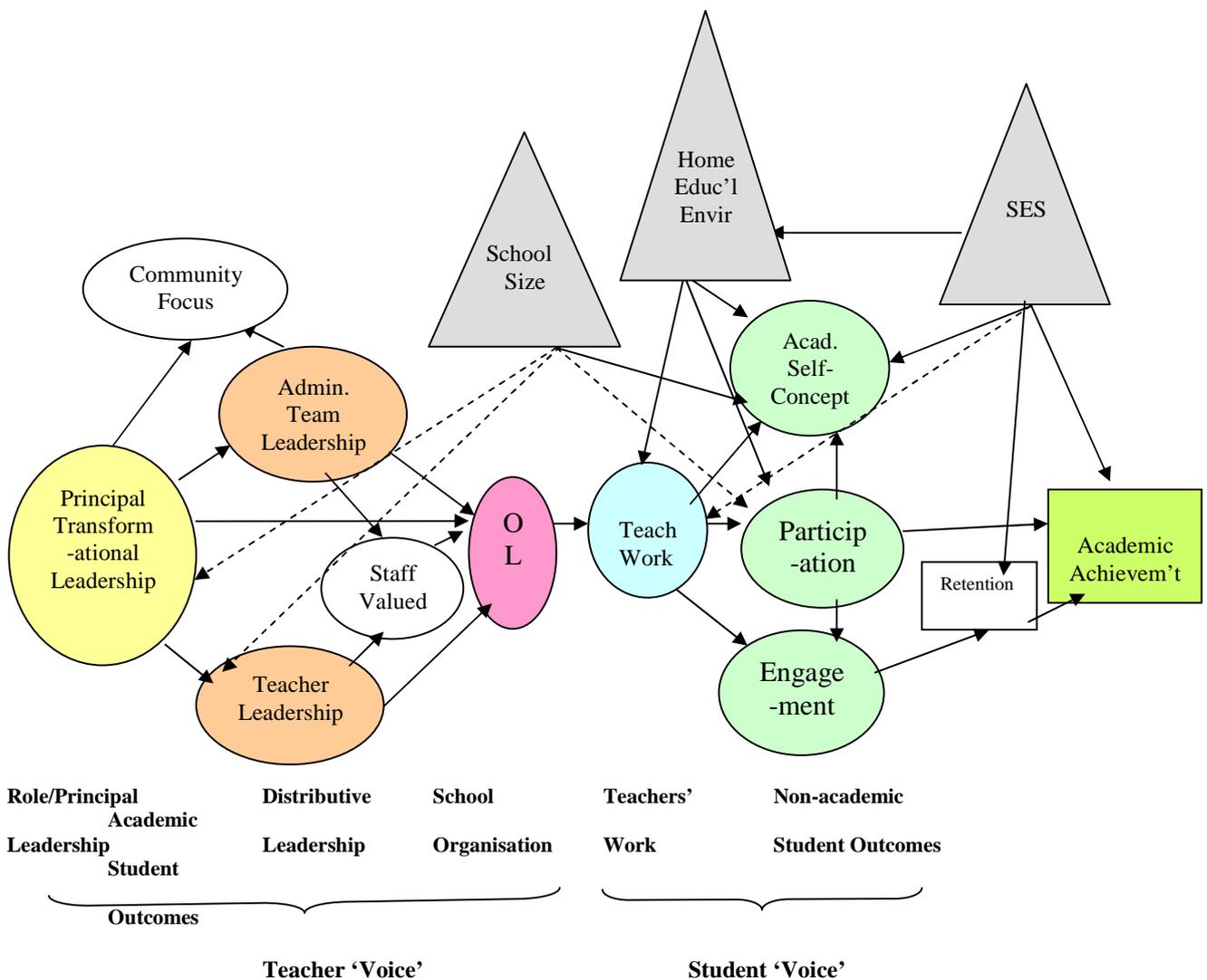


Figure 4: Summary for Section 4: Leadership for organisational learning and improved student outcomes (- - - - -> = negative relationship and - - - - -> = positive relationship)

In brief, the LOLSO project shows that the leadership that makes a difference is both position based (principal) and distributive (administrative team and teachers). But both are only indirectly related to student outcomes. This result is consistent with other reviews of research in the area (for example, Hallinger & Heck, 1996) as well as a recent OECD report (2001b, p. 3), which concludes that, “The relationship between strong leadership and good student results is not a direct one. Good leadership helps foster the kind of school climate in which learning flourishes, rather than directly inspiring students to achieve.” Organisational learning (OL), or a collective teacher efficacy, is the important intervening variable between leadership and teacher work and then student outcomes. That is, leadership contributes to OL, which in turn influences what happens in the core business of the school - the teaching and learning. It influences the way students perceive teachers organise and conduct their instruction, and their educational interactions with, and expectations for, their students. Pupils’ positive perceptions of teachers’ work directly promote participation in school, academic self-concept and engagement with school. Pupil participation is directly and pupil engagement indirectly (through retention) related to academic achievement (as measured by a five subject aggregate Tertiary Entrance Score at the end of Year 12).

LOLSO also found that whether the principal was male or female and the teachers’ years in education, age and gender were not factors promoting leadership or OL. The lack of gender differences is consistent with recent research based on a survey of the key values all women and a sample of the same number of men principals in England and Wales. (Coleman, 2001 & in press) However, school size does make a difference: the larger metropolitan schools of over 900 students did not provide the environment most conducive for principal transformational and teacher distributive leadership or for student participation, although having a larger school was positively related to students’ academic self-concept. Our results add weight to the research extolling advantages of smaller schools (Lee and Loeb, 2000). This issue has been recognised in some parts of USA with large schools now dividing themselves into smaller units in order to provide the web of support necessary for student and teacher involvement with the school and improved learning outcomes (Hodges 2000).

Another important contextual factor was found to be the socio-economic status (SES) of the school. SES had its expected positive relationship with student academic achievement, retention and academic self-concept. Although such findings need to be placed in the context of the results of OECD’s (2001c) PISA study which demonstrated that poor performance in school does not automatically follow from a disadvantaged socio-economic background of students. Interestingly, the LOLSO study found that SES had a negative relationship with student perceptions of teachers’ work. On the other hand, the students’ home educational environment (having a space and aids for study at home as well as having discussions and help with school work and conversations about world events) had a stronger relationship than SES to students’ academic self-concept but also a strong positive relationship with students’ participation in school and students’ perceptions of teachers’ work.

Having a community focus in a school (teachers perceive the school as having productive relations with the community and that schools’ administrators are sensitive to and work actively with it) was found to be another outcome of both transformational principal leadership and distributive administrative team and teacher leadership. However, no link was found between having a community focus and either OL or improved student outcomes. Some may find the lack of a direct link between a school having a community focus and either organisational learning or student outcomes to be potentially problematic. On the basis of our results, if a choice had to be made between working with and being sensitive to the community and improving home educational environments, the latter will have more direct and immediate ‘payoff’ for student outcomes. The success of the English Excellence in Cities education mentors program is a case in point (Radice, 2001). Of course, having a strong community focus may be important for other reasons including in the development of social capital in the community, especially in poor inner city and rural communities.

Finally, it is worth noting the perhaps controversial finding that students’ academic self-concept was not related to their academic achievement. Even though we, along with others (Silins & Murray Harvey, 2000) found that academic self-concept did not link to other student outcomes, including academic achievement, it does not follow that academic self-concept is not an important student outcome. For

example, pupil self-concept has been shown to be related to later life successes such as employment and earnings (Feinstein, 2000).

4.2 Other recent research on ways in which leaders lift student outcomes

These Australian LOLSO results and implications are also consistent with other contemporary research in the area. For example, in their chapter bringing together the lessons from a book of international research on leadership for change and school reform, Riley and Louis (2000) focus on leadership that is more than role-based, that is leadership as an organic activity involving the formation of a network of values-driven relationships. Integral to the success of such dispersed leadership are both pupil and teacher voice.

Also at the international level, an OECD (2001b) nine country study on innovative initiatives in school management concludes that, “Changes designed with little involvement of those destined to use them are rarely effective ... In that sense every teacher is a school leader ... It is striking ... how frequently team-working is cited as a key ingredient to the success of new approaches to school management.” The study points out that, “In such learning organisations, individuals and teams become reflective practitioners and are able to review their own situations and deal with problems or challenges as they arise.” (p. 55) “A transformation in the way that students learn ... requires students, teachers and managers each to develop greater autonomy, rather than be told what to do by a higher authority.” (OECD, 2001b, p. 3) The study continues, “putting all one’s hopes in the powers of a charismatic principal has rarely produced a long-term solution to a school’s problems, and has sometimes proven counter-productive.” (p. 4). In brief the study concludes that, “... it is impossible to detach the improvement of the ways in which students learn within schools from the ways in which schools themselves develop as learning organisations.” (p. 10)

Many of PISA’s (OECD, 2001c) and LOLSO’s results are also consistent. On average PISA found that those students who liked school perform better than those who do not. The aspect of student engagement found to be most closely associated with reading performance was their ability to control the learning process, that is, figuring out what they need to learn, work out as they go what concepts they have not understood, look for additional information when they do not understand, check whether they remember what they have learned, and make sure they have remembered the most important things. While there was no single factor that explained why some schools or countries had better results, school policies and practices that tend to be associated with success in reading (taking account of other observed school and home background factors) can be summarized as follows (OECD, 2001c):

- student use of school resources (library, computers, laboratories);
- university qualified teachers; student:
- staff ratio from 10:1 to 25:1;
- school policy and practice (as reported by principals) regarding teacher expectations of student performance, teacher morale and commitment and school (not teacher) autonomy; and,
- classroom practice (as perceived by students) involving positive teacher-student relations, good disciplinary climate and, to a lesser extent, emphasis on academic performance and high demands on students (including homework).

The Australian Council for Educational Research’s longitudinal surveys of Australian youth (for example, see Fullarton, 2002) has also stressed the importance of student engagement with school. They found that a high engagement at the school level even moderates the negative effects of SES and indigenous status. In brief, they conclude that it does matter which school a student attends. Provision for, and encouraging students to participate in, a broad range of school activities leads to a student’s closer connectedness to the school community as well as flow on effects to more academic parts of the curriculum.

In USA Goddard et al (2000), Heck (2000) and Sweetland and Hoy (2000) have found close links between school environments and improved student learning. Goddard et al (2000) found that “collective teacher efficacy is a significant predictor of student achievement ... [and] is greater in

magnitude than any one of the demographic controls [including SES]" (p. 500). These researchers conclude, "a one unit increase in collective teacher efficacy is associated with an increase of more than 40% of a standard deviation in student achievement." (p. 501) Heck (2000) found that not only was higher SES directly related to greater student improvement and larger schools produced smaller student gains, but also that schools where the head teacher leadership was rated as more supportive and directed towards instructional excellence and school improvement and the school climate was seen in positive terms "produced greater-than-expected improvements in student learning over time." (Pp. 538-539) Sweetland and Hoy (2000, p. 723) in a study of 86 middle schools that teacher empowerment was related to higher levels of teacher self-report as well as student proficiency tests (in reading and mathematics) of effectiveness - "... a school climate that is open, collegial, professional, and focused on student achievement provides the atmosphere for productive teacher empowerment in teaching and learning decisions ... [but the link to student achievement in through] a collective efficacy among teachers." After 15 years studying school reform, the Consortium for Research in Education comprising researchers from five of USA's leading universities (Pennsylvania, Harvard, Stanford, Michigan, and Wisconsin) have a relatively straightforward 'theory of action' about what it takes to make better schools (Fuhrman, 2001):

- clear and ambitious goals;
- a strong focus on instructional practice;
- extensive investment in continuing professional development;
- strong curricula and in leadership at the system and school levels; and,
- accountability including incentives to provide positive reinforcements where improvement is occurring.

Also in the USA, Elmore (2000) details five principles that lay the foundation for a model of distributive leadership focused on large-scale improvement in schools:

- the purpose of leadership is the improvement of instructional practice and performance;
- instructional improvement requires continuous individual and collective learning;
- learning requires modelling;
- the roles and activities of leadership flow from the expertise required for learning and improvement, not from the formal dictates of the institution; and,
- the exercise of authority requires reciprocity of accountability and capacity.

In UK detailed case study research (Maden, 2001) following up on 11 effective schools in disadvantaged areas some five years after the initial investigation has found that the levers of change and improvement included:

- distributive leadership ("It is tempting to dwell solely on the head teacher as a kind of miracle worker, but these heads know that, above all else, securing improvement comes through the hearts and minds of teachers. (p. 319)" and "... extra mental and emotional energy seems to be triggered off by a shared sense of achievement, particularly when this is the result of the real efforts of staff and pupils. (p. 330)");
- organisational learning ("It is probable that 'school capacity' is the single most important matter in trying to identify how and why some schools maintain and sustain improvement. (p. 320)"; and,
- pupil participation and engagement ("Effective headship seems always to include the nurturing of leadership opportunities for teachers, but also ... for pupils. (p. 327)").

Earley et al (2002, Pp. 9-10) found that the main themes from case studies of ten exceptionally well led UK schools were headteachers as:

- problem-solvers and 'solution-driven';
- highly visible during the working day; having developed strong senior leadership teams;

- regarding middle managers as ‘the experts’; strongly emphasising continuing professional development;
- mediators of change, negotiating it effectively, and adapting it to fit existing values and ethos; and,
- having strong and involved governing bodies, or at least chairs of governing bodies.

In Hong Kong, Cheung and Cheng (1996) found that self-management at the school, work-group and teacher levels were statistically associated with enhanced performance of a school. More recently, Cheung and Cheng’s (2002) follow up case studies in three ‘outlier’ primary schools from of their original sample of 63 found that:

- the school that was low in school, work-group and teacher self-management had poor performance, that is, low student academic achievement, low teacher perception of the school’s productivity, adaptability and flexibility, and low teacher job commitment, challenge and meaning;
- the school low in school but high in work-group and teacher self-management produced enhanced performance in student’ academic achievement;
- the school high in all three levels of self-management produced enhanced performance in student academic achievement, organisational effectiveness and individual teacher job attitudes.

Wylie and Mitchell (2003) are involved with ongoing research into ten ‘ordinary’ New Zealand primary schools, which have gained a reputation for the improvements they have made in recent years in the context of major system decentralisation. They identify six principles that underlie the activities, relationships and processes, which allowed these schools to develop over time. These six principles centred on the creation of community:

- which could recognise itself positively;
- put in the effort required for change;
- which participated in stimulating professional development;
- that found their own way but with a single-minded focus on student learning, through critique and development of classroom teaching;
- but benefited from having open doors to government, community, professional developers, professional organisations, and so on; and,
- with strong leadership.

While strong leadership was not found to be confined to principals, Wylie and Mitchell (2003, p. 12) elaborate: “Principals had an iron determination as well as being good communicators, with a love of their school and its students, and sound educational knowledge. They were also incurable learners. ... They provided good models for their staff and most encouraged others in their school to take on leadership roles.”

Having examined the important links between leadership and teacher recruitment, development and retention and leadership and student outcomes, this paper now shifts its focus to the recruitment and development of school leaders themselves. The next section examines recruitment and the final section the professional development of school leaders.

5. Recruitment of school leaders

5.1 Introduction

The key relationships in the recruitment of school leaders are summarised in Table 4.

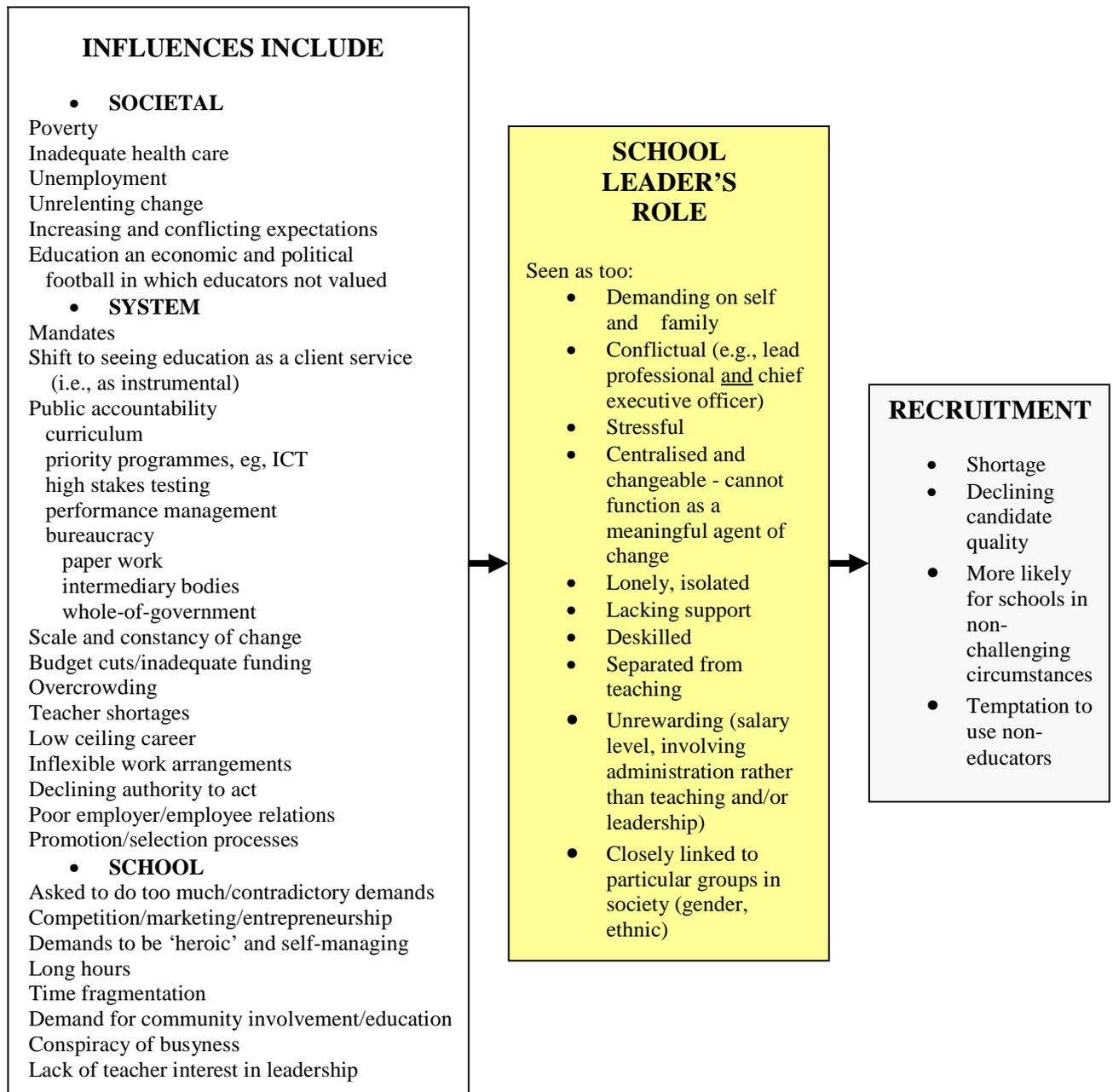


Table 4: Summary for Section 5 - Recruitment of school leaders

5.2 Is there a shortage of school leaders?

Studies of school leader supply and demand did not commence in earnest until the late 1980s and concerns over a potential shortage did not become apparent until the mid-1990s. By the turn of the century the media attention to the issue had grown. This attention was particularly obvious in countries such as US and UK (see, for example, Copland, 2001 and Earley et al 2002). A Web search by the author for this paper using 'school principal shortage' turned up 140,000 items, the highest ranked of which were from these two countries.

The problem can be understood in at least three different ways. The first is that there is a growing shortage, the second is one of declining candidate quality and the third is the mobility rate of leaders from one position to the next. There is much more written about the first than the second or third issues.

Is there a shortage? A number of recent publications from different countries say that the answer is a clear 'yes'. "Some countries, particularly United States and Flanders, find it difficult to attract suitable candidates for what is seen as an increasingly onerous job." (OECD, 2001b, p. 48) Grady et al's (1994) study of a sample of all Australian government school principals found that regardless of location, type, size or level of school, gender, or age, ninety two percent of Australian principals expected to retire or resign from the principalship more than five years before they 'have to'. More recently, schools in all systems, states and territories in Australia have reported far fewer applicants for the job as principal. (no author, 2002b) In a study of 1,400 primary and secondary school teachers, principals and deputy principals in Australian state of Victoria in 2000 found that 88 per cent had no intention of becoming principals. (Lacey, 2000, 2001 & 2002) Any shortage may be made to appear worst where there are high mobility rates. For example, Galvin and Sheppard (2000) found that in the U.S.A, state of Utah the mobility rate of school administrators from one position to the next was almost as high as the attrition rate.

Williams (2001) has found that in Ontario, Canada, close to 75 per cent of principals and over 40 per cent of vice principals expect to retire by the year 2007. The high level of vice principal retirements raised the issue of the quality or depth of the future applicant pool for principal positions. James and Whiting (1998) found that in England and Wales fewer than half the deputy principals were actively seeking or regarded themselves potential aspirants for the principalship. Respondents in a more recent large English study of those in leadership positions (Earley et al, 2002, p. 7) "were of the view that recruitment and retention of school leaders is likely to become increasingly problematic." Four out of ten deputy/assistant principals in this study stated that they had no plans to become a principal and four in ten principals were considering early retirement. In South Africa, Pounder and Merrill (2001) found that only 30 per cent of qualified potential candidates expressed intentions to pursue a high school principal position in the next five years.

5.2 Reasons for the shortage of school leaders

What are the reasons for this decline in interest in school leadership? The list includes:

- job-related stress from the pressure of long hours, budget cuts, overcrowding and shortage of qualified teachers;
- time fragmentation - the way time, space, and communication patterns are structured often results in administrators having virtually no time for reflection or talk with trusted colleagues about concerns and fears - a leader can easily be isolated and many have to bear the burden of leadership alone;
- an unsupportive external environment including the growing pressure of high-stakes testing and accountability - a set of local, state, and federal mandates, many of which are seen by school leaders as unfounded;
- social problems that schools are assuming in trying to instruct students - the harsh realities from the outside, such as poverty, inadequate health care, and unemployment;
- the pressures of unrelenting change which are not necessarily to education's advantage;

- the perception that education has become a economic/political football in which the principalship is not valued;
- family and personal life;
- inadequate remuneration for the increased responsibility and workload;
- a lack of feedback on their performance; and,
- a selection process that can be too complex and intrusive.

Ackerman & Maslin-Ostrowski (2002, p. 5) argue that today in USA, “schools and school leaders are caught in a strong riptide. ... School leaders and those aspiring to leadership persistently cite job-related stress and time fragmentation, the growing pressure of high-stakes testing and accountability, and the social problems that schools are assuming in trying to instruct students as major factors influencing their standing” External forces and demands infiltrate schools and can have a powerful influence on the career of an administrator. A school leader today, for example, “is apt to be experiencing the pressure of budget cuts; overcrowding; shortage of qualified teachers; and a set of local, state, and federal mandates, many of which are unfunded. Harsh realities from the outside, such as poverty, inadequate health care, and unemployment, create enormous challenges for a leader inside a school.” The culture and norms found within schools can also present unique challenges for the leader. As Ackerman & Maslin-Astrowski (2002, p. 11) explain, “The ground-floor conditions ... - including the way time, space, and communication patterns are structured – are integral parts of the messy world of school leadership. An administrator has virtually no time for reflection or talk with trusted colleagues about concerns and fears. ... a leader can easily be isolated and many have to bear the burden of leadership alone.”

A great deal of data have been gathered on Australian school principals and their professional and personal background, formal education, employment history and work experience, professional development, retirement or resignation intentions, and descriptions of their actual and ideal school and principalship (Grady et al., 1994). The major reasons for the finding that most principals intended to retire more than five years before they had to related to pressure of the job (41%), schools being asked to do too much (30%), and to do other things, take up new challenges and/or let others have a go (23%). After answering eleven pages in the rest of the Questionnaire, many of the respondents took the opportunity to add further comments on the page provided. The strongest themes running through these additional comments were summarised under the following three broad groupings.

- The pressures of unrelenting change which are not necessarily to Education's advantage e.g., "[It is] a never ending story of change and upheaval which isn't benefiting anyone, especially the children" and "Many dedicated teachers are becoming cynical and tired - this is sad" (p. 29);
- the increasing, multiple and sometimes conflicting expectations which result in an excessive workload for the Principal filled with growing tension, stress and, increasingly, burnout e.g., "'Administrivia' and 'the paper warfare' preclude my involvement with staff, instructional leadership, teaching, and children" (p. 30); and,
- the perception that Education has become a economic/political football in which the Principalship is not valued e.g., "In the Ministry's eyes we are administrators first and teachers second [yet] parents tend to see the opposite", "Currently we are over used, taken advantage of and disposed of all too easily" (p. 30), and "[The government] want to reduce power and resources [to schools] and then blame schools if it doesn't work" (p. 32).

Williams (in press) study of close to 1000 incumbent principals and vice principals in Ontario, Canada, also found that virtually all of their major dissatisfiers (identified by at least 70 per cent of respondents) were related to policy initiatives taken by the government and implemented, often poorly, by local district boards. Major dissatisfiers included the inadequacy of time to plan for provincially mandated change, the number of curriculum changes mandated, inadequacy of time to work with students, heavy workloads, and the increasing non-student reporting requirements. A unique aspect of the Williams study was an investigation of the reasons given by a group of identified excellent potential principals, who had decided not to pursue a career in school administration. The majority of determinants were related to role definition, selection and leadership development and concerns over the climate

surrounding public education. Of particular concern was “the group’s perception that principals could not function as meaningful agents of change. They perceived that the province had centralised so much power over educational matters and imposed so many changes in such a short period of time while simultaneously cutting resources that principals could have little in school impact.”

More recently in Australia, D’Arbon et al’s (2001) study of why teachers would not apply for principalship in Catholic schools in the state of New South Wales found that the highest ranking disincentive to be the impact the job would have on the person’s family and personal life. The second highest ranked factor was an unsupportive external environment. Their study also confirmed results from other studies (see following) that teachers are content with their current role, do not see adequate remuneration for the increase in responsibility and workload and perceive that the selection process is too complex and intrusive. Lacey (2001) found teachers in the state of Victoria were found to be steering clear of the principalship because of the perception that the job is too stressful, demanding and unrewarding. Stress and long work hours were seen as the key turn-offs.

The James and Whiting (1998) study in England and Wales identified six factors that had influenced the career decisions of deputies not to seek principalship: role overload, contentment with current job, negative impact on the individual’s family, self-doubt, concerns over public accountability, and external factors such as inadequate funding for schools and the scale and pace of bureaucratic initiatives. Leaders in schools in Earley et al’s (2002) recent study in England said they were de-motivated by the bureaucracy and excessive paperwork and also by the constant change in the education system. Baker (2001, p. 1) notes that “England’s schools are emerging from the wringer of accountability testing just as American schools are being fed into it” and that lessons to be learnt from the English experience include the need to “guard against pushing accountability so far that it tips over into excessive central control and hamstring teachers.” Baker (2001, p. 2) points out that in “countries where accountability measures have undermined teachers’ autonomy, there is now a recruitment crisis.”

In USA, Cooley and Shen (1999) found that current principals and those aspiring to the role believed that: the principal’s salary is not commensurate with the level of responsibilities that the job holds; the demands of the role have a negative impact on a person’s home life; prospective applicants are only interested in particular principal positions, such as those that are close to their current residence and those where there is a positive relationships between board, administration and teachers. Beaudin, Thompson and Jacobson (2002) found similar results.

Observational studies of the work actually undertaken by school principals confirm their hectic life. These studies (see, for example, Willis, 1980) have shown the brevity, variety and fragmentation in their work activity. This situation led to principals facing uncertainty, ambiguity, superficiality, constant pressure, and a lack of feedback on their performance. Recent research by Cranston et al (2002) in Australia and New Zealand on what principals really do has found that they work long hours, feel increasing pressure, identify increased variety, diversity, conflict, and some overload in the demands of their role. At the same time the majority of them are satisfied in their role as a principal, especially where their actual role aligns with what they actually would like the role to be like and with what the systems expects of them. Cranston et al (2002, p. 28) found that principals wanted more of a leadership and less of a management role, “that is one that engages them in a major way on operational matters related to students and staff.” Also in New Zealand, Brooking et al (in press) found primary school principal recruitment was hampered by the perception of a separation of the principal as a manager from the body of teachers as employees within the school.

Added reasons for a decline in interest in school leadership include:

- an increasing pool of “Generation X” teachers who do not see teaching, let alone leadership, as a life-long career. (Draper & McMichael, in press) Traditional notions of any career may no longer be as stable as they have been - for example, the attrition rate in the first five years after graduation for teachers in both England (Day, 1999) and USA (Darling-Hammond, 1990) is reported to be 50 per cent.

- the lack of promotional opportunities in, or the 'low ceiling' nature of, a career in teaching. As a way to overcome this problem, Brooker and Mulford (1989) have proposed a promotion model where all posts of responsibility in schools become contractual.
- principals value highly their teaching experience for success as a principal (Fenwick & Collins Pierce, 2001) yet increasingly school leaders are 'forced' out of the classroom.
- the older age profile of principals - in England and Australia two thirds are aged 46 or older (Earley et al, 2002; Grady et al, 1994) - combined with the fact that early retirement/resignation from the principalship has been made easier and is an almost universal intention. Boyland (2002) reports that older teachers are much more vulnerable to career threatening psychological illnesses such as anxiety and depression. This situation was found to be particularly acute for men over 45. In a study of 266 schools in UK 71% of long-term absences for men over 45 were caused by stress compared to 58% for the same age group of women. The average difference between compulsory retirement age and intended retirement/resignation in an Australia-wide study (Grady et al, 1994) was found to be 5.5 years.
- the overwhelming majority of leadership positions are held by particular groups in society - for example in England (Earley et al, 2002) from White ethnic origin and female in primary schools and male in secondary schools. In USA, where 55 percent of the student population are African American or Hispanic, "Women, who make up more than 70 percent of the teaching force, now comprise 35 percent of the nation's principals. ... white males who comprise less than 25 percent of the teaching force - and are the least credentialed educators - comprise nearly 50 percent of the nation's principals and over 80 percent of the nation's superintendents and central office directors!" (Fenwick & Collins Pierce, 2001, 1)
- failure to recruit or seriously consider qualified licensed female candidates. Brooking (in press), for example, found that in New Zealand primary schools, as a result of the conservative, patriarchal attitudes of the Boards of Trustee employers, the majority of principals are male. Women principals were found to be largely ghettoised into the least desirable, small, low status, difficult schools which are often in low socio-economic or isolated rural areas.
- most of those wanting to become principals, or to move on to another principalship, prefer to go to a school that is not in a 'challenging situation'. (See Earley et al, 2002) Type of school may be important in better understanding the attractiveness of school leadership. Those in higher socio-economic schools were found by Wylie (1997) to spend more time on work relating to the school's roll, reputation and buildings and grounds whereas those in low socio-economic schools were doing more pastoral care work and working more with outside agencies.
- the temptation to hire non-educators, despite the evidence from alternative certification programmes for teachers showing they are not as successful and are twice as likely to leave the profession as traditionally trained teachers. (Fenwick & Collins Pierce, 2001)

Despite this long list of reasons for the shortage of school leaders, research (D'Arbon et al, 2001) has found that principals and their deputies were the most satisfied educators. This satisfaction was especially likely where the actual role aligns with what the leader actually would like the role to be and with what the system expects of them. It has also been found that teachers placed in a leadership role were more likely to aspire to become principals, because experience debunked the myths about the job. Lacey (2001, p.1) states that "many teachers perceive the role of leadership as largely one of administration, followed by management with little or no leadership ... [so to] inspire educational visionaries to aspire to leadership roles ... we need to provide administrative and management support to allow leaders time to show real leadership."

5.3 Summary

In summary, there is evidence of growing shortages of school leaders and a suggestion, but little evidence, of a declining quality of candidates for school leadership positions. Combining the evidence

presented above with that offered in earlier sections of this paper, the reasons for this shortage could be grouped under the societal, system and school influences.

At the societal level these influences include:

- societal problems (poverty, inadequate health care, unemployment);
- unrelenting change;
- increasing and sometimes conflicting expectations; and,
- a feeling that education is an economic and political football in which those in schools are not valued.

At the system level these pressures include:

- mandates and accountability (such as curriculum and/or priority programmes, high stakes testing, performance management);
- bureaucracy (especially excessive paper work, the increase in intermediary bodies and new approaches such as whole-of government);
- poor employer/professional educator relations;
- declining authority to act;
- budget cuts;
- overcrowding;
- teacher shortages; and,
- teaching as a low-ceiling career.

At the school level these influences include:

- competition;
- long hours;
- an emphasis on administration rather than leadership;
- involvement in education of community; and,
- a 'conspiracy of busyness, that is the way time, space and communication patterns are structured.

These influences result in the job of school leader being seen by potential candidates as too demanding, conflictual, stressful, deskilling, lonely, isolated, separated from teaching, lacking support, unrewarding, and only for particular groups in society. Although it is interesting to note that evidence suggests that the issue of rewards is seen differently by potential candidates and the school leaders themselves - with leaders believing it is a rewarding job. Clearly existing school leaders have not got this message of job fulfilment across to those who would follow them.

The result of these influences and perceptions of the role of school leader has been a shortage and possible declining candidate quality except perhaps for schools in non-challenging circumstances. There has also been the temptation to use non-educators, even though research shows this 'solution' not to have been a success. It may be that a daunting standards-driven school leadership training regime and/or a lack of support from the system may also be having a negative impact on school leader recruitment. (Gronn, 2002; Brundrett, 2001; Bush, 1999) We will turn to issues such as this in the next section on the professional development of school leaders.

5.4 A warning

Before turning to the next section, however, it needs to be pointed out that we need to be very careful we are not 'eating the seed corn' - consuming our own future - by frightening off the brightest and best from leadership of our schools. The issue may have to do more with the conceptualisation of the role itself rather than the size of the pool of potential applicants. "More than ever, we need literate, caring, and critical thinkers in ... leadership positions. We cannot afford to barter instructional capacity for sound management. Both are necessary, but perhaps the skills and time they require may take more than one person. Arguably, it is less difficult to find someone to make the busses run on time than to find one

who will serve children by supervising, coaching - and inspiring - those who teach them.” (Fenwick & Collins Pierce, 2001, Pp. 3-4)

Gronn and Hamilton (2002) also see an antidote to the phenomenon of work intensification, the continual expansion of the principal role space by escalating the responsibilities to be performed, involving an increase in the occupants of the space. Co-principalship would de-intensify the work by dispersing the burdens and risks of office. Court (2002, p. 2) identifies four types of shared school leadership: “job-shared co-principalship, two people alternate working as the (sole) principal and having time off for parenting, community commitments and study In split-task dual leadership one co-principal carries out the ‘business’ administration, while the other carries out instructional leadership In integrative co-principalship, the co-principals work together on more tasks and involve other staff and sometimes students and parents, in teamwork and shared decision-making In teacher collectives, teacher leadership teams share all the school-wide administration, policy making and planning responsibilities, replacing the principal.”

Another approach to preparing a pool of suitable candidates for the principalship is to provide opportunities to take up acting positions. In a study of 32 local authorities in Scotland, Draper and McMichael (2002, 2003) found a surprising high 10 per cent of schools had an acting principal. However, these researchers also found that only half of those who had held acting principalships had sought permanent principalships. The study concluded that rather than the usual rather sudden appointment process to acting principalship, the employer create a pool of those interested and give them induction and training prior to specific acting principalships becoming available as well as offering adequate support for them once in position.

The decision of whether or not to become a school leader may have much to do with the crucial choice teachers make about their role. Barth (2001, p. 117) elaborates: “In the past, the majority of teachers have chosen to confine their work as educators to the classroom. Yet the future of public education rests upon a new majority of teachers who will extend their work as educators to the entire school.”

The decision of whether or not to become a school leader also has much to do with whether current successful leaders believe that a crucial part of their role involves succession planning, that is, developing other leaders. In the business world, Cohen and Tichy (2002) have found that among publicly traded companies in USA the ‘winners’ are judged by sustained success in adding value for shareholders. Winning companies not only had leaders at every level but also leaders took responsibility for developing leaders. To develop other leaders, leaders needed to have a ‘teachable point of view’ (a leader’s opinion on what it takes to be successful and what it takes to lead other people), creative ways to find teaching and learning opportunities, and stories about the future of their organisation. In brief, great leaders are involved in professional development, they are great teachers. In the next section we turn to issues surrounding the professional development of school leaders.

6. The retention and development of school leaders - professional development

6.1 Introduction: A proposed model of the stages and dimensions in the provision of school leader professional development.

All preceding sections of this paper underpin “the need for principals and those at the system level to receive training.” (OECD, 2001b, p. 50) Goldstein (2002, p. 2) argues that “shouldn’t education, like law and medicine, be considered a profession? Nobody complains about forcing lawyers to pass the Bar Exam or doctors to slave through at least four years of training before being given the licence to operate.”

Yet in countries such as England only 17% of principals (Earley et al, 2002, p. 7) thought they were ‘very prepared’ for principalship and only “about one-in eight headteachers were prepared to say that,

on actually taking up their first headship, they regarded themselves as well equipped to take it on.” A research study surveying new principals in Europe (Bolam et al, 2000) found that 65 per cent had received no formal or structured preparation for the job. In Canada, Hickcox (2002) reports that current training is sporadic and uncoordinated for both new principals and incumbent principals, and certification is voluntary and often not achieved. In contrast, a review of developments in principal training programmes in England, Australia, Hong Kong, and Sweden led Caldwell et al (2002, p. 129) to conclude “there remains an underlying concern that the role of the headteacher ... is essentially unfeasible, that that this, more than the limitations in training and development, is the fundamental reason for the shortage in the number and quality of applicants.”

There are signs that the professional development of school leaders is receiving greater attention in some countries (for example, the multi-million dollar commitments to the establishment of the National College for School Leadership in England and the principal training and development centre initiatives in New Zealand). This interest should not be surprising given both the investment societies are now making in education and the importance governments and systems are placing on schools and the leadership of those schools. This renewed interest may also be fanned by shortages of school leaders and possible links between quality professional development and recruitment and retention.

Despite the need for, and renewed interest in, the professional development of school leaders, it remains a massive and complex topic. Much is already published and there is a resurgence of interest in the area (see, for example: Gronn, 1999; Hallinger, 2002; Huber, 2002; Leithwood et al, 2002). Given the size and complexity of the topic, this section of the paper can only hope to ‘scratch the surface’. The section will illustrate aspects of a map of the stages and dimensions one needs to consider in the provision of effective professional development of school leaders (see Table 5) then summarise the work of two recent researchers (Huber & West, 2002, and Dempster, 2002a, b & c) who have worked in the area across different countries.

STAGES*	DIMENSIONS						
	Content Chosen			Delivery Mode Used			Measurement of success
Coverage With whom	What	Who	On what basis	Who	Where	How	
Intending							
Inductees							
Early career							
Late career							

* assumes there is a career in school leadership

Table 5: Summary for Section 6 - Professional development of school leaders

6.2 Illustrating aspects of the proposed map of the stages and dimensions in the provision of school leader professional development

First, let us turn to some of the research findings and/or issues in respect of the proposed stages and dimensions in the provision of school leader professional development.

6.2.1 Career stages

Consistent with the concept of lifelong learning, and assuming school leadership involves a career, the stages in a school leader's career are receiving growing attention. For example, implicit in the data collected in Earley et al's (2002, p. 8) recent study establishing the current state of school leadership in England "is a call for a coherent school leadership professional development framework which begins shortly after qualification as a teacher and continues through and beyond headship." Sweden (Johansson, 2001 & 2002) has a long standing four step approach to principal training: recruitment for those wanting to become principals; introduction for those newly appointed; a national programme after about two years in the job; and, continuation which comprise mainly university courses. The Hong Kong (Walker et al, 2002) continuing professional development framework for school principals has separate programmes for aspiring, newly appointed and serving principals.

In an evolving context where traditional notions of career are no longer as stable as they have been, there is an urgent need to pay particular attention in a coherent and systematic manner to a period of induction as an important and distinct learning phase in a school leader's life and work. For example, in USA "New Leaders for New Schools" is a public-private partnership dedicated to recruiting and training inner-city principals. Principals-to-be get seven weeks of tuition-free training in educational leadership, a one-year paid 'residency' under the tutelage of a master principal, and, once in charge of their own schools, two years of intensive professional development. (Goldstein, 2002)

Transition from one career stage to another, for example from teacher to head of a subject department or school principal, also brings its own difficulties and issues (for example, for a case study of a woman principal in the Norwegian context see Moller, 2002). Two of the most used techniques for such transitions are internships and mentoring.

The literature on internships (from Crow, 2001) suggests program variety based on characteristics such as duration, type of experience and balance of outside/inside influence. Yearlong experiences tend to be recommended for teachers aspiring to school leadership but a shorter time for experienced leaders, such as those who have been a deputy. The socialisation inherent in the internship is seen as a dynamic evolving process by which the intern and the intern/mentor relationship changes and develops. The stages in this socialisation include: formal initial contact; apprehensive, cautious minimal; comfortable settling in; more confident, sharing efficacy; and, independence. How interns develop is partly a result of the role that various agents play in the process, as well as the contents and methods used by these agents.

One of the strongest agents of influence in an internship programme is the mentor. They not only typically assign or negotiate the intern's responsibilities, clarifies concerns, answers questions, checks perceptions, and acquaints them with the school culture but also protect them from mistakes that may harm their careers, sponsor them into new career opportunities, and expose them to new experiences.

There are two categories of content identified in the literature that are useful in evaluating and understanding the internship experience: technical and cultural. The technical is instrumental and involves acquiring and appropriately using the knowledge and skills of the role. Cultural or moral learning includes the sentiments, beliefs, standards of practice, and value orientation of the role. Methods to learn the technical side of the role can vary from trial and error and bombardment to more structured and gradual exposure to the techniques.

A typical method involves scaffolding in which interns observe, talk through, reflect, and do. What they 'do' usually evolves from technical, short-term tasks to more basic issues of developing a collective vision and building a senior leadership team. In terms of cultural learning, interns learn the sentiments, norms and values of the role by observing and interacting with the supervisor or mentor about what is acceptable, important, requires attention, and problematic as well as issues to do with the artefacts (keys, office), rituals (social distance between teachers and leaders), rites (intern selection), and ceremonies (how introduced to staff) of the job.

Mentoring (from Crow, 2001, and Ackerman et al, 2002) has a long history and is currently undergoing a resurgence of interest in education. What are its functions, processes, mentors, and benefits and pitfalls? Three functions of mentoring are professional, career and psychosocial development. The professional development function refers to helping others learn the knowledge, skills, behaviours and values of the leader's role. The career development function includes issues of career satisfaction, awareness and advancement (for example by helping establish networks). The psychosocial development function focuses on personal and social well-being, as well as role expectations, conflict and clarification/identity.

Several primary processes are inherent in mentoring. The first and most basic is personal relationship. The second is active guidance, teaching and challenge. The third involves the management and implementation of a planned curriculum, especially one that involves the active collaboration of others in the school. These processes of personal relationship and active guidance involve an intentionality that is critical to the success of mentoring.

Other mentoring processes include teaching/coaching, reflective mentoring, and sponsorship. When informing is necessary, adult learners respond more to demonstration and modelling approaches but in general they respond best to learning-by doing. Mentors also need to be challenged to try new roles, responsibilities and even the mentor's strategies and choices. Mentors need to know when to intervene and when to allow learning from mistakes to occur. They also need to be reflective and encourage open and honest reflection with their mentees. Keeping journals, shadowing, storytelling, and visioning can all help in this process. Sponsorship involves not only nominating mentees for desirable positions but also creating opportunities to allow the mentee's skills to be seen by others. It also involves actively introducing interns to those in the education system who can help advance their career.

Mentor selection is a critical part of any mentoring program. At least four characteristics should be considered in mentor selection: successful and well-regarded school leaders who have strong character reputations, commitment to mentoring and their own development as a mentor, commitment to being learners themselves, and time to mentor. Matching mentees with the right mentor is often difficult but is thought to work best when both choice and developmental needs are balanced. Not only should the selection and matching be intentional processes, but also the preparation of mentors should be planned and emphasised. Mentor training should cover the content (the purpose and nature of the scheme), methods (teaching/coaching, reflecting, sponsoring), and assessment of mentoring.

The benefits of mentoring for the mentees can be summarised as: exposure to new ideas and creativity; visibility with key personnel; protection from damaging situations; opportunities for challenging and risk-taking activities; increased confidence and competence; improved reflection. But because mentoring is an active, reciprocal learning process, mentoring has benefits for mentors as well. These include: learning new skills; opportunity to critically evaluate their own processes; renew interest in teaching; increase own career networks; increase their importance to the larger education system; long-lasting friendships/supporters.

Pitfalls of mentoring include: mentors may have their own agendas that do not include the best interests of the mentee; mentee dependence on the mentor; mentors trying to clone mentees in their own image; an overly cosy and comfortable relationship that results in a support of instrumental and conservative views and a perpetuation of the status quo. As Southworth (1995, p. 27) argues, "We need to be careful that we are not 'supporting' our new school leaders by encouraging them to face the future by walking into the 21st century looking backward."

What is clear in techniques such as the internship and mentoring is that emphasis is put on the links between leadership style and the culture of the organisation: a movement away from the notion of leadership as *transactional* (deriving from Old Public Administration and New Public Management) to the notion of leadership as *transformational* (deriving from Organisational Learning), having the potential to alter the cultural context in which people work. Inevitably, there seems to be a preoccupation with 'transactional' models in systems where strong central control has been retained,

while in those systems where decentralisation has been most evident, considerable interest in 'transformational' models has emerged. (Huber and West, 2002)

6.2.2 Dimension in the professional development of school leaders

Three dimensions of professional development of school leaders are proposed for attention. These dimensions are content/design, delivery mode and measures of success.

First, the content of school leader professional development depends in part heavily on how the role of school leader is conceived - teacher, administrator, and/or transformational manager of learning organisations. Gronn (2002, p. 1058) argues that "compared with the [past] processes of managerial and leadership professionalisation ..., the [more recent] idea of customised leader formation represents a substantial, paradigmatic break with precedent. Under ascriptive- and meritocratic-based systems the relations between providers and beneficiaries operated, for the most part, in the interests of the suppliers of the requisite knowledge, skill and values. With customisation, however, the reverse situation prevails and provider-beneficiary relations are increasingly subject to the discipline of the market. And the market for future leaders tends to be demand-driven. The assurances sought by market beneficiaries under customisation arrangements (typically, the employers of prospective educational leaders) are that their recruits will be suitably, rather than simply naturally, or even formally, fitted as previously." Gronn (2002) points out that, while the precise institutional nature of customised leader formation is still taking shape around the world, three core elements (based on New Public Management) are distinguishable. These are: national or system-wide standards of effective leadership, coupled with accredited diagnostic assessment of the performance potential of individuals against those standards, and a likely increased reliance on commercially contracted search agencies (i.e., headhunters) as the most risk-averse means of guaranteeing the selection of school leader recruits in conformity with desired sets of standards.

Hipp and Huffman's (2003, p. 24) research in USA on professional learning communities (i.e., deriving from Organisational Learning), schools that continuously inquire and seek to improve teaching and learning, has also found that, "Beyond doubt, the preparation of school administrators is key." In contrast to Gronn's (2002) description of what is happening in the customisation of school leader professional development, these researchers argue that, "Educational administration programs need to prepare potential school leaders to move beyond issues of management, and provide practical experiences that focus on relationships and learning outcomes. ... Specifically, leadership preparation programs must guide potential leaders in the following: establishing collaborative decision-making, developing a shared vision, aligning the energies of diverse groups of people, supporting the interdependency of individuals in the organisation, and providing opportunities for shared learning among staff."

In fact, in the current literature on continuing professional development three broad conceptualisations are readily identifiable. (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Lieberman & McLaughlin, 1999) These conceptualisations are knowledge for, in and of practice. They can be seen as a continuum, at one end of the spectrum teachers/leaders are cast in the role of implementers of knowledge generated by experts and formulated by policy elites that they bring back to their schools and put into practice in their daily routines. In response to this extreme there is acknowledgement of teacher/leader craft knowledge that cannot be ignored if school cultures are to be transformed in significant ways. A third way takes issue with both these perspectives and suggests teacher/leader knowledge is both local and public simultaneously and while professional learning is context specific wider social forces shape it significantly also.

There is increasing importance placed in the content of professional development of school leaders on values. Caldwell (2002), for example, identifies a set of six values that underpin what he calls a new sense of the public good - access, equity, choice, growth, efficiency, and harmony. Begley (2003) argues that acquiring administrative sophistication is a function of understanding the influence of personal values on organisational and social practices. Partly as a result of working with groups of school administrators in Canada, Barbados, Sweden, Australia, and Russia, Begley identifies four

motivational bases of values (consequences, consensus, preference/self-interest, and ethics/principles) and seven sources of values and value conflicts (self, group, profession, community, culture, and transcendental - God, faith, spirituality).

Second, a wide variety of delivery modes of school leader professional development can be identified, including:

- who (university, employer, union, some partnership) - in England recent research (Earley et al, 2002, p. 9) has shown that, "School leaders look chiefly to their peers, both within and outside the school, for ideas and inspiration";
- where (on-site, elsewhere, distance, some combination);
- how (course involving lecture, tutorial, problem-based learning, some combination, mentorship, apprenticeship and whether offered full time, part time, in flexible mode); and,
- when (at times most conducive to participants, schools, employer and/or to maximise the transfer of learning)

Mulford (1984) pointed out that in respect of the 'how' question, while experiential approaches may be more effective for certain training outcomes, they also tend to involve greater levels of self-disclosure and risk for trainers and trainees alike. They also move the locus of 'control' within training away from the trainer. Further, Mulford reminds us that training strategies need to be considered in light of the characteristics of the learner and the context or setting in which training takes place, as well as the desired learning outcomes. This implies that a balance will always be needed, but moreover that this balance needs to be re-calibrated for particular learning groups within a given programme structure, rather than simply between different programmes with different target groups or objectives. Clearly, this has very significant messages for the training of trainers – an issue that has received much less attention than programme content or methods in the countries that we have reviewed.

Third, and finally, measures of the success of school leader professional development are not widely or readily available. Such measures might include:

- feedback from participants, course designers and course providers on the relevance of content, quality of delivery mode and usefulness of the measurements of success;
- feedback from multiple sources (participants, employers, colleagues, staff, students) on the success, or otherwise, of the school leader after the professional development and/or in a subsequent stage in their career, especially in different types of schools and communities; and,
- measurements of any links between school leader professional development and both teacher and school leader recruitment, development and retention - professional development needs to be of a nature that it acts to attract, support and professionally develop rather than repel, interrogate and blame school leaders.

One specific area that has received growing attention in measuring the success of school leader professional development links standards and performance management. This area clearly develops out of the New Public Management form of educational governance. Leithwood et al (2002) compared five sets of standards for educational leadership development from USA, Australia, UK and New Zealand. (See Appendix 1) They found that all five sets had in common an emphasis on financial management including hiring appropriate staff, being a role model, establishing professional development as an ongoing school-wide activity, monitoring and evaluating teacher and pupil progress, using test score to guide curriculum and instruction, wide consultation, parent and community involvement and effective communication to all stakeholders, and valuing diversity. Missing from the lists were teacher leadership, balancing the full range of duties expected of the school leader, teacher stress and morale, endorsing new programmes in order to aid implementation, consequences of high-stakes testing, marketing, working effectively with school councils, outreach or entrepreneurial functions, and acknowledgement of the political, social and organisational features of the contexts in which leaders work.

Gronn (2002) describes the development of school leadership standards in the UK and USA and then identifies a number of serious concerns with this approach. These concerns include their links with

business, the presumed causal connection between heads' actions and learning outcomes on which the entire standards edifice rests, the possibility that they erode significantly the previous voluntarist tradition of diverse and plural forms of professional preparation, and potentially reduce the degree of differentiation amongst the pool of prospective heads for appointment to diverse school communities, and that a daunting standards-driven headship training regime may have a negative impact on headship recruitment (see also: Brundrett, 2001; Bush, 1999).

Mongan and Ingvarson (2001) have examined the Australian state of Victoria's principal performance management system and found it wanting in several important respects. In particular they found no attempt to link performance management with improved educational outcomes for students, school improvement or improved quality of management in schools. As a result of reviewing the professional development of principals in UK, New Zealand and Australia, Dempster (2002c, p. 39) concludes that the use of standards and competency frameworks for school leaders is in its early stages and that there is little research evidence about the impact and effects of these frameworks. However, he points to criticism of some of their limitations as including that they are more likely to "concentrate on role definitions acceptable to employers than on professional self-development in fields of interest to individuals working in atypical contexts", fragment professional performance, separate performance from circumstances in which it occurs, and implies a degree of precision difficult to realize in professional settings. In his own country, Australia, he sees system imperatives "being met at the expense of both principals' autonomy and their engagement with the moral and ethical values associated with the profession." Barber (2001) has gone as far as to claim that in countries where accountability measures, such as performance management, have undermined teachers' autonomy, there is a recruitment crisis.

These three dimensions in the professional development of school leaders (content, delivery mode and measurement of success) can be found in recent reviews of the area. Ribbins (2000), for example, argues for an approach to school leader professional development which:

- is centrally concerned with improving the quality of schooling and the achievement of pupils;
- is systematic, comprehensive and of high quality;
- makes available continuing opportunities for every career phase;
- has a concern for practical skills but also for a more philosophical approach;
- involves a range of providers;
- provides core training, but supports development opportunities that mean more than this; and,
- is based on the best available evidence and fosters the research that generates this.

Another example is provided by Bredeson (2003) who proposes a set of design principles for expanding and legitimising learning opportunities for those in schools. Using the metaphor of architecture and building on empirical research and exemplary practice Bredeson (2003) identifies six design themes:

- professional development is about learning, including teachers and principals being part of its design;
- professional expertise is a journey, not a credential;
- opportunities for professional learning are unbounded;
- student learning, professional development and organisational mission are intimately related; and,
- professional development is about people, not programs and activities.

The proposed stages and dimensions can also be found in two major cross-country studies of the professional development of school leaders. It is to these two studies that we now turn before concluding the paper with some possible implications arising from the material presented.

6.3 Some recent cross-country research findings on the professional development of school leaders

6.3.1 The Huber and West research

Huber and West (2002) have provided an overview of established school leadership development believed to represent current best practice from ten different countries (France, Netherlands, England and Wales, Germany, Singapore, Hong Kong, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, and USA - see summary of each country in Appendix 2 Tables 1 to 11). Their analysis is based on eight programme dimensions - aims, content, methods, pattern (such as number of days and the time span needed), status (compulsory or voluntary and relevance for career prospects), and the costs and who bears them.

The authors classify the programmes they studied in two ways (see Tables 6 and 7). The first classification involved the degree of centralisation against two axes, one relating to the level of central control over the education system as a whole, the other relating to the level of central government involvement in the design, delivery and accreditation of programmes. What they find is that in predominantly centralised systems (such as France, Germany, Hong Kong, and Singapore) there are predominantly centralised arrangements for the development of school leaders. Programmes are standardised, closely monitored, mostly mandatory and governments maintain close involvement in the quality assurance process. At the other extreme are New Zealand and the Netherlands. Here, there is considerable autonomy at school level, with local rather than national determination of school objectives and plans. There is also a thriving local economy providing a range of training programmes and opportunities. The remaining examples are places where there are varying but significant levels of autonomy at school level, but where the general pattern and approach is substantially subsidised.

Huber and West (2002) make the point that these examples show us how two major preoccupations of politicians can be accommodated; on the one hand school level decision-making and strong local involvement in the direction of schools, on the other, some guarantee that the government is ensuring a supply of suitably trained and experienced candidates will be available to manage the stock of schools. They believe more countries will be moving into this quadrant of the matrix in the coming years.

		Approach to School Leader Development	
		predominantly centralised	entrepreneurial
Level of Central Control over School Management	predominantly centralised	A France; Germany; Hong Kong; Singapore	B
	substantially devolved	C Ontario, Canada; US examples; NSW, Australia; England & Wales	D Netherlands; New Zealand

Table 6: Huber and West's (2002) overview of the degree of centralisation/ decentralisation of school systems and school leader development approach

The second of Huber and West's (2002) classifications involves the emphasis given to experience and course-based elements in school leader professional development learning opportunities (see Table 7). They note that the examples fall into three groupings with the emphasis changing from the programme in France, which is heavily experiential to the programme in Hong Kong, which is substantially course-based.

The first group which is centred around experiential methods has adopted development programmes that feature some form of 'internship (see above 6.2.1). The third group, in contrast to the first, tends to rely on traditional, course-based learning, trusting individual programme members to make the link from the course and, perhaps from the workshop, to their workplace, from general 'theory' to their particular practice. The middle group offers a balanced or 'mixed-economy' – showing some emphasis on practical work and applications, but most often within the trainees' own school situations, and with the support of a mentor. At the same time, these programmes seem to offer a strong 'traditional' core of training sessions that are course based.

Huber and West (2002) conclude by stating that there are important advantages arising from those programmes that seek to supplement activities in the training room with tasks in the school.

	Course-Based Learning	Experience-Based Learning			
centred around experiential methods		mixed model		centred around courses	
France; Netherlands	Singapore; WA;	NJ; Ontario; Zealand	England; New	NSW, Australia; Hong Kong	Germany;

Table 7: Huber and West's (2002) overview of the emphasis of learning opportunities within school leader development programmes

Their research prompted Huber and West (2002) to offer eight generalisations about current trends in school leadership preparation:

- increasing attention is being paid to the identification of specific programme aims and objectives – *a move from the general to the particular in planning*;
- emphasis within training is shifting *from maintenance functions onto activities that promote school improvement and explicitly seek to raise standards of achievement*;
- increasing emphasis being given to the *development of the individual trainee*, personal development rather than training for a role, with much greater interest in individual values and how these values act upon the culture within the school;
- growing interest educational or instructional leadership;
- *movement away from unconnected 'single issue' or 'single shot' training events towards a more carefully planned and coherent programmes typically offered over a sustained period of at several points in the school leader's career*;
- the emergence of *new partnership arrangements* that have been formed to design, to implement, to monitor and evaluate school leader development programmes - typically, the partners will include representatives from the employing organisations (whether national, state or local level), from educationalists in the university sector and, increasingly, from professional associations that represent school leaders themselves;
- a needed drawing together of theory and practice; and

- emerging convergence of *curriculum content* onto teaching and learning issues and the personal and interpersonal skills of leadership.

6.3.2 The Dempster research

Dempster (2002a) also uses two intersecting continua to define four orientations to professional development: system reconstruction or reproduction and a focus on people or system.

- An emphasis on system reproduction and the system results in a '*system maintenance*' orientation towards professional development. Under this orientation educational leader professional development is likely to be competency-based, linked to central authority policies and priorities and focussed on authorities, responsibilities and accountabilities.
- A focus on system reconstruction and the system results in a '*system restructuring*' orientation. Professional development here would assist a school leader develop values and attitudes consistent with the system, make changes in the structure and function of their school in system-determined directions, work towards system-nominated change outcomes within set budgets, and in gathering and using system-stipulated performance data.
- The combination of a system reproduction and a focus on people results in a '*professional sustenance*' orientation. School leader professional development here would be based on issues arising from 'on-the-job', be linked to the leader's personal definition of professional identity and be consonant with ethical professional independence.
- The final combination of system reconstruction and a focus on people results in a '*professional transformation*' orientation. Professional development for the school leader under this orientation would undertake constructive social, system and organisational critique, question taken-for-granted understandings, analyse and reshape personal and collective professional knowledge, and reconstruct schooling and school leadership in alternative ways.

Dempster's (2002b, p. 44) own involvement in professional development for school principal projects spanning four countries (Scotland, England, Denmark, and Australia) led him to state that system focused orientations dominated and that there "is little evidence that 'the other side of the coin', the people side is receiving similar attention." He concludes (Dempster, 2002c, p. 39) that, "principals' professional development requires a fine balance between learning what the system requires of individual leaders and what practising professionals requires of themselves and their colleagues ... [but that] achieving this balance is not easy when the demands of day-to-day administration coupled with loyalty to employers draws principals learning towards system initiatives, priorities and policies and the certainty of effective routines." Dempster (2002c, p. 39) believes a balance can best be achieved, "by groups of principals or professional collectives and alliances setting and delivering their own professional development agendas."

III. SOME IMPLICATIONS

This paper commenced with a broad listing of developments in society and in education and asked how these developments were being reflected in the roles, recruitment and development of school leaders. In attempting to answer this question, this paper first examined how different approaches to school governance had resulted in changed roles for school leaders. Then an examination was made both of the school leaders' role in strengthening the recruitment, development and retention of teachers and their role in lifting student outcomes. The evidence was clear that school leaders are of crucial importance for a continually improving education provision. Because of the importance of school leaders, the focus of the paper then shifted to their recruitment and development and retention (or professional development).

Some of the possible implications arising from this analysis conclude the paper. The implications are organised under the broad topics that framed the paper. Because of this approach it will be noted that a number of implications appear in more than one section (e.g., implications 1.1 and 3.1). There could be other ways of organising these implications, for example under headings such as the attractiveness of the role of school leader (e.g., 1.4, 1.6, 4.5) and their selection and appointment (1.5, 2.2, 4.6, 4.8), initial training (5.1, 5.3, 5.9), retention (4.4, 5.1, 5.2, 5.4, 5.6, 5.7, 5.8), and role in teacher and school effectiveness (1.1, 2.1, 2.4, 3.2, 4.3). The reader is encouraged to use the material in a way that best suits their particular purpose and context.

1. Achieving the heightened expectations of schools

- 1.1 Consider broadening what counts for effective education beyond academic achievement to include areas such as student engagement, participation and self-concept and community social capital (that is, to areas that have greater predictive validity for later life successes). Is, for example, failure considered a necessary part of learning?
- 1.2 Better reconcile decentralisation with overall system quality. The degree of detail with which schools are held to account needs to be reviewed, for example, if priorities need to be set should the focus be on outcomes and/or procedures? If the focus is to be outcomes then consideration should be given to the evidence indicating that some forms of outcomes, for example those involving standardisation, have been found to harm teaching and learning as well as re-stratify education by race and class.
- 1.3 Explore more seriously whole-of-government (cross-agency) approaches to meeting the heightened expectation of schools.
- 1.4 Review role responsibilities and levels of administrative support for principals to ensure that their priority is educational leadership, for example, that they are provided with time and space to become leaders, rather than plagued with bureaucracy, such as endless circulars and regulations. Do they, for example, have sufficient authority and flexibility conferred upon them to enable them to fully discharge their ever-challenging responsibilities?
- 1.5 Review school leader appointment processes and criteria to ensure they reflect the new demands being made of them. For example, check that school leaders have the ability and time to build teams, for example:
 - . to involve and negotiate with all stakeholders in order to establish a clear vision for the school to which all the constituents have 'signed up';
 - . to effectively manage communications and perceptions (different strategies are required for different stakeholders); and,
 - . to engage in evidence informed monitoring, practice and policy.
- 1.6 Consider appointing school leaders for fixed periods, including exploration of the attractiveness or otherwise of:
 - . contracts of employment, e.g., that provides tenure to a teaching position but contracts to all post of responsibility;
 - . transfer to another school after a period in one school (say 7 years);

- . periodic time away from the school context to undertake research sabbaticals or purposeful secondments (including in business and/or industry, especially where it can be reciprocated);
- . joint appointments with university, training bodies, and so on; and,
- . co-principalship.

2. Ways in which school leaders can strengthen the recruitment, development and retention of effective teachers

- 2.1 School systems and their leaders need to consider conferring greater professional autonomy to teachers - it has been shown to enhance the attractiveness of the profession as a career choice (teachers are attracted to and stay in the profession if they feel they belong and believe they are contributing to the success of their school and its students).
- 2.2 Identification and development of potential leaders need to be formalised, rather than be left to chance. The process needs to include provision of early leadership experiences for young teachers.
- 2.3 Educational interventions need to target not only the effective implementation of national programmes/priorities but also the need to progress through the inevitable developmental stages of any implementation. In targeting interventions recognition needs to be given to the fact that it is a journey and that actions (including evaluation of success) at one stage may be inappropriate, or even counterproductive, at another stage.
- 2.4 As part of their role school principals need to:
 - . value and support teachers (working with rather than through them);
 - . buffer teachers against the excesses of the mounting and sometimes contradictory external pressures; and,
 - . focus on sustaining school improvement by building teacher and school capacity.

3. Ways in which school leaders lift student outcomes

- 3.1 Broaden what counts for effective education beyond academic achievement to include student engagement, participation and self-concept and community social capital.
- 3.2 Leadership be re-considered as serving and enabling others to lead themselves, celebrating difference (in gender, ethnicity, experience, attitudes, and ideas), connectedness, and a questioning of the status quo.
- 3.3 As organisational learning, or collective teacher efficacy, is the important intervening variable between leadership and teacher work and then improved student outcomes, early priority be given to supporting the development of OL in schools.
- 3.4 Greater attention be paid to the context in which school leaders operate, especially in relation to school size, SES and the home educational environments of its students.

4. Recruitment of school leaders

- 4.1 Review whether accountability measures are undermining teacher and school leader autonomy.
- 4.2 Ensure that school leadership is about leadership, not management.
- 4.3 Encourage more teachers to extend their work as educators beyond the classroom to the entire school. Recruitment and retention issues in teaching and middle management are a key here.
- 4.4 Develop comprehensive succession frameworks for the management of educational leadership (including recruitment, development and retention) - succession planning needs to be more than just-in-time job replacement. Needed are enough good applicants who are interested in a job with which they are familiar enough (i.e., ensure there are opportunities for familiarisation with the role) to make an informed career decision. Monitor numbers seeking middle management posts and principal training and respond if numbers look unpromising.
- 4.5 The position of school leader needs to not only provide job satisfaction but also to be perceived by others as providing job satisfaction. More work is needed on making school leadership an

- attractive and 'do-able' task for all those who hold or aspire to such positions, including looking at the workload implications. Strategies include:
- . providing early leadership experiences for young teachers;
 - . disseminating examples of good practice in managing workload and models of school structures and processes that make effective use of administrative and other staff, using appropriate task delegation;
 - . demystifying the principal's role, especially administrative and financial roles and responsibilities; and,
 - . encouraging principals to articulate and display a sense of job satisfaction.
- 4.6 Selection processes need to encourage and support rather than deter leadership aspirants by, for example:
- . recognising multiple career paths;
 - . being simplified to reduce complexity, time required and stress; and,
 - . being based on merit and equity principles.
- 4.7 Further develop professional development programs for effective selection processes.
- 4.8 Implement recruitment and hiring programmes aimed at increasing the number of minority students in educational leadership programmes.
- 4.9 Build the attractiveness of leadership roles in schools in 'challenging circumstances'.

5. Retention - Professional development of school leaders

- 5.1 Waiting until school leadership posts have been secured before training is too late - there is a need to pay greater attention in a coherent and systematic manner to a period of induction as an important and distinct learning phase in a school leaders life and work.
- 5.2 Leadership development for middle managers should become automatic, and part of a whole career framework for leadership development.
- 5.3 Ensure that developmental programmes for aspiring school leaders include:
- . skill of integrating external, school and personal values/vision;
 - . attention to encouraging participants to develop strategies for balancing work and other aspects of their lives;
 - . more opportunities for team members to experience professional development as a team - one version of this would include the chair of the governing body;
- 5.4 Find more space in all professional development programmes for school leaders for:
- . examples of leadership values in action - how to articulate, prioritise, develop strategies around, and measure all leadership activities against;
 - . moving beyond maintenance/management to relationships and school improvement/ learning outcomes;
- 5.5 Develop and implement for all stages of a school leader's career:
- . regional and local relocation support programmes, including for spouse/partner and family;
 - . programmes that help moves to distribute or devolve leadership more evenly in schools;
 - . programmes that build on partnership arrangements in programme design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation;
- 5.6 Build on the preference by educators to learn from each other by developing and refining
- . quality network learning communities,
 - . acting and/or shared leadership roles and
 - . apprenticeships and/or mentoring.
- 5.7 Seek greater clarity/evidence of the effects on schools and the people in them of performance management and standards-based professional development before committing further resources in these areas - there is, for example, a need to recognise that improving motivation is more often about a sense of achievement, responsibility and self-fulfilment than merit or performance related money.
- 5.8 Consider strategies to maintain motivation and challenge for experienced principals, including their not remaining a principal until retirement - allow, for example, some principals to be appointed for fixed periods by exploring attractiveness or otherwise of contracts of

- employment, periodic time away from the school context to undertake research sabbaticals or purposeful secondments and/or joint appointments with university, training bodies, and so on.
- 5.9 More emphasis needs to be given to:
- . effective access to, and appropriate use of, evidence (including educational research) - both in and about professional development programmes;
 - . the balance between autonomy and accountability including the crucial issue of independent professional control (e.g., the concern in England that the National College for School Leadership's "future work may become over directed/influenced by the imperatives of current government policy" (Earley et al, 2002, p. 13);
 - . how school leaders are identified and selected for training;
 - . matching training methods to learning outcomes;

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V. APPENDICIES

Appendix 1: Leithwood et al (2002) Analysis of Standards

Appendix 2: Huber & West (2002) Overview of School Leadership Development in Ten Countries

Appendix 1: Leithwood et al (2002) Analysis of Standards

A list of 121 leadership practices shown to be necessary in dealing with accountability initiatives was generated from the literature and compared with five sets of leadership standards (only practices are included with knowledge required, conflicts suffered and emotions experienced not included). The sets of leadership standards employed were the USA Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (USA1), Queensland Standards Framework for Leaders (Australia), National Standards for Headteachers (UK), Principal Performance Management (NZ), and Connecticut Professional Standards (USA2). A 'x' indicates that the practice is included or implied in the set.

Leadership Practices	USA1	Australia	UK	NZ	USA2
<i>Mission, Vision and Goals</i>					
1. develop a well-defined vision	x	x	x	x	x
a) with staff	x	x		x	x
b) promote and model	x	x	x	x	x
c) share responsibility for achieving	x	x	x		x
2. use vision to guide curriculum and instruction	x	x	x	x	x
3. create a sense of shared purpose	x	x	x	x	x
4. balance student academic and personal growth factors (consider whole child)	x	x	x	x	x
5. with staff, parents, and other stakeholders, locate and adopt elements of external initiatives that cohere with their schools' directions	x	x			
6. focus on both instructional and facilitative leadership	x	x	x	x	x
7. endorse change (improvement)	x	x	x	x	x
8. exhibit moral courage (e.g., not to cheat) especially in face of high-stakes testing (code of ethics/integrity)	x	x	x		
<i>School Culture</i>					
1. establish and sustain a culture of inquiry and reflection	x	x			x
2. build a collaborative culture		x		x	x
3. empower teachers in decision making		x			x
4. build a culture of teacher leadership					x
5. build a climate of mutual trust and respect	x	x		x	
6. change culture of the school to invite parent involvement	x	x			
7. use test scores as a point of pride - sign/symbol of success	x	x			x
<i>Policies and Procedures</i>					
1. manage change/improvement	x	x	x	x	x
2. assume functions of accounts, maintenance, personnel	x	x	x	x	x
3. manage time effectively	x		x	x	
4. adapt policy to local context	x	x		x	
5. run parent/staff meetings effectively	x	x	x		
6. leverage externally imposed standards for social justice and equity		x			
a) consider equity issues	x	x	x	x	x
7. set an example/role model	x	x	x	x	x
8. Minimise negative consequences of high-stakes testing	x	x		x	
<i>Organisation and Resources</i>					
1. develop effective coordination strategies	x	x	x		x
2. obtain necessary resources for learning	x	x			x
a) deal with three levels of authority	x		x		
b) meet with high-ranking officials	x	x	x	x	
c) engage in political power games to get what school needs	x				
3. seek advice, support of superintendent for endorsement and resources			x	x	
4. create organisational structures that involve all faculty in decision making	x	x		x	x
5. develop structures that allow for collaboration	x	x			x

Leadership Practices	USA1	Australia	UK	NZ	USA2
6. develop relations with teacher PD providers	x	x			
7. balance workload/prioritise			x	x	
<i>Teachers</i>					
1. foster collective capacities	x				x
2. buffer staff from their tendency to feel they must respond comprehensively to government demands for policy implementation					
3. develop safe and trustful relationships with staff	x	x		x	x
4. provide individualised support for staff		x	x		x
5. show support by accepting higher levels of noise in cooperative learning classes					
6. cultivate leaders from the ranks of teachers					x
7. challenge staff to think critically and creatively about their practices	x	x	x	x	x
8. be sensitive to teacher concerns		x	x	x	
9. help teachers deal with increased parental involvement	x				
10. help teachers deal with change		x			
11. establish PD as an ongoing school-wide activity	x	x	x	x	x
a) exhibit a commitment to growth	x	x	x	x	x
b) engage in capacity building		x	x		x
12. provide feedback to teachers about how to improve instruction	x	x	x	x	x
13. reward accomplishment	x	x		x	
<i>Programs and Instruction</i>					
1. be an innovative instructional leader	x	x	x	x	x
2. obtain resources	x	x			x
3. adapt central initiatives to fit local context	x	x		x	
4. sharpen the focus on academic program			x		
5. make sure content as well as test-taking skills are covered					x
6. establish a focus on student learning	x	x	x	x	x
7. endorse new programs in order to aid implementation of them					
8. carefully monitor/evaluate implementation of school improvement plans	x	x	x	x	x
9. encourage careful monitoring of teacher and pupil progress	x	x	x	x	x
10. deal with potential negative effects of student standards/testing	x			x	
11. develop school improvement plans from results of inquiry and reflection	x	x	x	x	x
<i>School-Community Relations</i>					
1. foster parents' involvement in the education of their children	x	x	x	x	x
2. provide opportunities for parent involvement	x	x	x	x	x
3. establish an open-door policy for parents	x	x		x	x
4. provide a social service to community - act as social worker	x	x		x	
5. foster meaningful relations (e.g., with potential resource suppliers)	x	x	x	x	x
6. keep program going					
a) lobby politicians	x	x	x	x	
b) court media	x			x	
c) deal with varied constituencies	x	x	x	x	x
d) seek sponsorship	x	x	x		x
7. market schools	x	x			
8. become very active in school council		x		x	
9. be a strong advocate of the school council					
10. encourage council to adopt a capacity-building agenda					
11. assume a public relations role to get parents involved in school council		x		x	x
12. communicate with all stakeholders	x	x	x	x	x
13. formalise parent involvement	x				

Leadership Practices	USA1	Australia	UK	NZ	USA2
14. act as a community leader (political and moral leader)	x	x		x	
15. build community support for a humane, well-balanced curriculum	x	x	x		x
<i>Information Collection and Decision Making</i>					
1. share decision making responsibility	x	x	x	x	x
2. create senior management teams	x	x	x	x	
3. continually search for new solutions	x		x	x	x
4. systematically collect evidence	x	x	x	x	x
5. collect information from all stakeholders	x	x		x	x
a) solicit student input				x	
6. be sensitive to exam statistics to improve instruction	x	x	x	x	x
7. monitor progress of students	x	x	x	x	x
8. disseminate information widely	x	x	x	x	x
9. apply or be responsible for knowledge of state's benchmarks/ standards/ regulations	x	x	x	x	x
10. sort out which regulations apply	x	x		x	

Appendix 2: Huber & West (2002) Overview of School Leadership Development in Ten Countries

Qualification for school leaders in France National programme for school leaders of secondary schools	
Provider	Centre Condorcet in Paris through 28 regional state academies
Target Group	future school leaders at secondary level, who have successfully come through the selection process and passed a written exam (now a dossier) and an oral exam
Aims	imparting of leadership and management skills in preparation for the task of leading a secondary school
Contents	Administration; School Law; Management Techniques; Budgeting; Teacher Evaluation; Interpersonal Skills; Leading Conferences and Staff Groups
Methods	modularised seminars at state academies interspersed with practical training in schools (with the school leader as mentor) as well as in companies and public authorities
Pattern	Phase 1: 'Formation au Premier Emploi': 24 weeks (ca. 120 days) within 6 months full-time directly after successfully passing the selection process, from January to June timetabling: 4-6 weeks at an academy; regularly interspersed by a total of approx 12 weeks internship in schools, 4-6 weeks practical training in a company, and 2 weeks practical training at a local authority Phase 2: 'Formation d'Accompagnement': 21 days 1 or 2 day courses immediately after taking over as a (deputy) school leader during the two year probationary period
Status	mandatory; selection and training are interdependent: training cannot begin without first having been selected; both are preconditions for taking over a position as a school leader
Costs	unknown, qualification is state financed; participants get release time from school for the duration of the first phase

Qualification for school leaders in the Netherlands Management- en Organisatieopleidingen of the NSO	
Provider	Nederlandse School voor Onderwijsmanagement (NSO), a co-operation of five universities
Target Group	aspiring and established school leaders (and deputies), particularly at secondary level
Aims	development of competencies for leading schools and other institutions in the educational sector; improving the chances of the participants to get employed in a leadership position due to a formal qualification (certificate)
Contents	Context and Strategic Management; Organization Management; Operational Management; Theories of Management and Organization; Models of Educational Organizations; Organizational Diagnosis; Decision-Making; School Management and School Boards; Marketing and Public Relations; Contract Activities; Control of the School Culture; Leadership Styles; Personnel Management; Recruitment, Selection and Guidance of New Staff; Job Evaluation Interviews; Guidance of Sitting Staff; Labour-Relations and Collective Bargaining; Instructional Leadership; Curriculum and Instruction; Modularization; Productivity and Quality Care; Implementation of Innovations; Internal and External Guidance; Development and External Management Consultancy; Management Information Systems; Management of Information Technology; Facility Management; Financing and Budgeting; Selected Problems of School Management; Selected Practices of the School Leader
Methods	lectures, speeches, seminars, training sessions, consultations, role play and simulations, case study, peer counselling, readings, writing a study journal (documenting one's own learning process)/ reflective writing, school projects/internship

Pattern	ca. 144 course days* (4 semesters with 215 hours contact time each) and additionally time for preparing and implementing the school project within the internship (4 semesters with 140 hours each), and time for literature research and readings, and for the assignments within two years timetabling: seminars: 20 hours per semester, every Wednesday (afternoon/evening); training sessions: 175 hours per semester, Friday and Saturday; supervision: 15-20 hours per semester; school project within the internship: 140 hours per semester
Status	optional; valued by the employing school body as the NSO is well renowned
Costs	ca. 7.200 euro (16.000 Dutch gulden) per participant; financed by the participants themselves (sometimes funded by the school budget)

** If there is no specification by the provider as far as the number of days is concerned, we converted the contact time in hours into the unit 'course day' taking 6 hours training as one day.*

<p>Qualification for school leaders in England and Wales, Great Britain The National Professional Qualification for Headship</p>
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Provider	approved centres contracted to the education ministry; in future, the National College for School Leadership is likely to play an increasing role in contracting to and quality assurance of providers
Target Group	teachers aspiring to headship, i.e. before application
Aims	providing the participants with leadership and management competencies in order to prepare them for headship
Contents	mandatory module: Strategic leadership and Accountability (developing a strategic educational vision committed to raising achievements; translating the vision into practice in order to secure high-quality teaching and learning; monitoring, evaluating and reviewing the effectiveness of a school; being accountable for the efficiency and effectiveness of a school to governors, staff, parents and pupils) additional modules: Teaching and Learning; Leading and Managing Staff; Efficient and Effective Deployment of Staff and Resources
Methods	self assessment, taught sessions, seminars, workshops, case studies, simulation exercises, group reviews and presentations; materials used include inspection reports, research findings, video materials etc.
Pattern	10-25 course days* (according to the number of modules) plus school-based projects, individual study and preparation of assignments within 1-3 years timetabling: mandatory module: 180 hours (60 hours contact time and 120 hours for school-based projects, individual study and preparing for assignments); 3 further modules: 90 hours each (30 hours contact time and 60 hours for school-based projects and assignments)
Status	optional (from 2002 mandatory); very much welcomed by the employing committees at the individual schools
Costs	ca. 3.200 euro to 4.700 euro (2.000 to 3.000 English pounds) for each participant depending on the number of modules taken; different sources of funding are offered, but self-funding is possible as well

** If there is no specification by the provider as far as the number of days is concerned, we converted the contact time in hours into the unit 'course day' taking 6 hours training as one day.*

<p>Qualification for school leaders in Germany The Bavarian state-wide programme for school leaders</p>
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Provider	Akademie fuer Lehrerfortbildung und Personalfuehrung Dillingen
Target Group	all newly appointed school leaders of all different kinds of schools
Aims	supporting school leaders in their new roles as key figures for assuring that their schools are run effectively within the framework of the central guidelines and implementing educational development processes proposed by the Bavarian State Department of Education
Contents	Course I: Reflection on one's own Leadership Role; Organisation and Administration of Schools; School Law; Course II: Leading Conferences; Leading Staff (leadership functions, styles and guidelines, management strategies); Communication Skills; additional themes are, e.g. team work, school programmes, etc.); Course III: Leading Staff (conflict management); School Improvement and School Quality (vision of a school, profile of a school, corporate identity, TQM-strategies); Environment-compatible Schools; Course IV: Representing the School to the Public; Working with Parents; Managing stand-in Staff; Teaching foreign Pupils
Methods	seminars, lectures, team work, moderation techniques, role-plays, simulations, learning by doing-tasks, reflection time, excursion (to innovative schools and school systems abroad)
Pattern	15/20 course days within 1 year timetabling: Course I: 1 week in the summer holidays between appointment and taking over leadership, Course II: 1 week in November/December, Course III: 1 week in in May/June, Course IV: 1 week decentrally organised
Status	mandatory
Costs	unknown, qualification is state financed

<p>Qualification for school leaders in Singapore Diploma in Educational Administration</p>

Provider	National Institute of Education of Nanyang Technological University
Target Group	teachers before application for principalship
Aims	preparation of school principals for the creation of school as 'Learning Organisation' or 'Thinking School'
Contents	School as Learning Organisation: Principles of Management, Systems Leadership, Workplace Learning; Action Research and Evaluation: Problem-based Practice, Marketing, Educational Evaluation; Management of School Programmes: Curriculum Development and Change Implementation, Professional Development of Staff; Governance of Singapore: Educational Policy Making, Financial Management in School, Ethics of Management Decisions
Methods	lectures, seminars, workshops, tutorials, mentoring
Pattern	ca. 58 course days*, and 2 4-week full-time school internships, and additional readings within 9 months full-time timetabling: 21 weeks of seminars (286 contact hours per semester), 2 4-week school internships
Status	mandatory
Costs	unknown, state financed; salary will be paid throughout the programme

** If there is no specification by the provider as far as the number of days is concerned, we converted the contact time in hours into the unit 'course day' taking 6 hours training as one day.*

Qualification for school leaders in Hong Kong, China Induction Course
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Provider	Education Department (ED) of Hong Kong
Target Group	newly appointed school principals
Aims	introducing newly appointed principals into their tasks and responsibilities promoting a re-conceptualisation of roles, relationships and responsibilities amongst staff groups
Contents	Hot Issues on Education Policies in Hong Kong; Roles and Functions of Secondary School Heads; School Vision and Mission; Communication, Application of IT in Education and School Visit; Performance Management; Prevention of Bribery and Education; Managing Change; Empowerment; Working with Staff having Teaching/Emotional Problems; Education Ordinance and Education Regulations; Working as a Secondary School Principal; School Head as a Leader; Selection of Staff; School Finance and Accounts; Curriculum Leadership; Relationship between School Heads and Mass Media; Quality Assurance; Inspection; Code of Aid and Annual Estimates; Employment Ordinance; Crisis Management; Team Building; In Tray Exercise; Post-Course Action Plan and Evaluation
Methods	lectures by guest speakers, discussion, case studies
Pattern	9 days within 2-3 weeks timetabling: 9 sessions of 3-6 hours covering the 6 topics
Status	mandatory
Costs	unknown, state financed

Qualification for school leaders in New South Wales, Australia School Leadership Preparation Programme

Provider	NSW Department of Education and Training through regional inter-district school leadership groups and partly involving other providers
Target Group	teachers aspiring to any leadership position in school or to principalship
Aims	preparation for school leadership and other leadership roles in 'learning communities'.
Contents	Leading Learning Communities (e.g. cultural and ethical leadership, system thinking, etc.); Leadership for Enhanced Learning (e.g. create optimal learning conditions for the school); Leadership for Effective Management (management tasks of the school leader)
Methods	seminars, small team sessions, networking, various use of electronic media, preparation and presentation of a learning portfolio and literature studies
Pattern	ca. 14 course days and literature studies within 1-2 years timetabling: one 'School Leadership Preparation Seminar': 2 days; 3 'School Leadership Excellence Seminars': 2 days each; additional integrated individually selected programme components for self-study or for small learning teams: 3 times 2 modules with 4 to 6 hours work time each
Status	optional; recommended for the application to a leadership position, not yet required
Costs	ca. 1.300 euro (2.400 Australian dollars) per participant; one quarter (60 Australian dollars) are taken over by the participant or his school and three quarters (1.800 Australian dollars) are taken over by the Training and Development Directorate

Qualification for school leaders in New Zealand Master of Educational Leadership of the University of Waikato	
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Provider	Educational Leadership Center of the University of Waikato
Target Group	educational leaders and individuals holding leading positions in different areas of the educational sector
Aims	development of the ability to reflect, interpersonal competence, and basic values as prerequisites for instructional leaders
Contents	mandatory: Resource Management and Issues in Educational Administration; Educational Leadership: Issues and Perspectives; Educational Leadership: Organizational Development; Educational Research Methods or Kaupapa Maori Research optional: Educational Assessment; School Leadership and the Community; Educational Leadership for Social Justice; Developing Educational Leadership; Professional Education Leadership
Methods	lectures, seminars, work shops, email platforms as well as international study tours
Pattern	ca. 48 course days* (24 credit hours across 12 weeks = 288 hours) plus about 1600 hours of individual study, participation in online platforms and conduction of school projects within 2-4 years timetabling: 8 3-hour seminars, either in the late afternoon or on Saturdays (2 per semester in full-time or 1 per semester in part-time); individual scheduling for part-time students is possible due to the online offer
Status	optional; seen as adequate qualification by the employing committee, the board of trustees of the school
Costs	ca. 4.000 euro (8.952 New Zealand dollars) for eight units per participant

** If there is no specification by the provider as far as the number of days is concerned, we converted the contact time in hours into the unit 'course day' taking 6 hours training as one day.*

Qualification for school leaders in Ontario, Canada Principal Qualification Program of OISE/UT	
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Provider	Center for Leadership Development of the Ontario Institute of Studies in Education, University of Toronto (OISE/UT)
Target Group	teachers aspiring a school leadership position, before application
Aims	Imparting to the participants the knowledge, skills and practices to enable them - to uphold the Standards of Practice in the Teaching Profession and the Ethical Standards of Practice in the Teaching Profession; - to build and sustain learning communities that support diversity and promote excellence, accountability, anti-racism, equity, partnerships and innovation; - to assume accountability for the achievement of all students and promote student success and life-long learning in partnership with staff, parents and the community; - to align and monitor programs, structures, processes, resources and staff to support student achievement; - to manage and direct the human, material, capital and technological resources for efficient and effective schools; - to initiate and facilitate change ,and operate successfully in a dynamic environment that is characterized by increasing complexity; - to understand and apply education and student related legislation in Ontario and district school board policies that have an impact on the school, students, staff and community; - to liaise with educational stakeholders concerning all aspects of provincial and district school board issues and initiatives
Contents	Social Context; Staff Development and Teacher Supervision; Management; Leadership; The School and its Community; Initiation of Change; Implementation of Change; Institutionalisation of Change
Methods	weekend seminars, reflective writing, Interactive Electronic Communication Projects,

	literature studies
Pattern	24 course days plus a 10-week attachment and literature studies within 1 year timetabling: Part 1: six weekends (Saturday 8.30 to 4.30 and Sunday 8.30 to 5.00); school attachment: 10 weeks (altogether 60 hours); Part 2: six weekends (see Part 1)
Status	mandatory; prerequisite for being employed as a school leader (the provider can be chosen by the candidates)
Costs	ca. 1.060 euro (1.390 Canadian dollars) per participant (Part 1 and Part 2 ca. 530 euro each) plus application fee ca. 40 euro (50 Canadian dollars)

<p>Qualification for school leaders in Washington, USA The Danforth Educational Leadership Program of the University of Washington</p>

Provider	College of Education of the University of Washington, Seattle
Target Group	applicants for the position of Principal in the state of Washington
Aims	to enable candidates to work effectively towards the key goals of quality improvement, educational leadership, the further development of organisations, co-operation, the expansion of knowledge, and personal reflection as a part of educational responsibility
Contents	Understanding of the Culture of a School; 'Leadership'; the Moral and Political Dimensions of Educational Leadership in a Democracy; Organisational Learning and Evaluation; Staff Development and In-service Training for Teachers; Lesson Observation and Assessment; the Curriculum and Teaching; Multi-cultural Education; School Leadership and Support for Special Needs Children; Financial Competence; School Law; Work based on the Placement Experience
Methods	case studies, simulations, role-play, interactive discussion, the completion of concrete leadership tasks during work experience, personal study
Pattern	ca. 98 course days* (39 'credit hours' of study over 15 weeks = 585 hours) and 120 days of practical experience (720 hours), and additional study time for reading the relevant literature and time to complete the necessary documentation, such as reports and the journal within 1 year timetabling: blocks of several days of seminars at the beginning and the end; 6 hour seminars every Thursday; all day seminars on 10 Saturdays; 16 hours a week practical experience (4 days à 4 hours per day)
Status	mandatory; all programme elements are required (however the candidates can choose between different programmes by different providers)
Costs	ca. 9.200 euro (8.600 US dollars) for a course ending with the Initial Principal Certification and 11.800 euro (11.000 US dollars) with the additional degree of Master of Education, paid by the candidates (scholarships and district support are available).

** If there is no specification by the provider as far as the number of days is concerned, we converted the contact time in hours into the unit 'course day' taking 6 hours training as one day.*

Qualification for school leaders in New Jersey, USA**Example: The Educational Leadership Program of the William Paterson University**

Provider	College of Education of the William Paterson University of New Jersey
Target Group	applicants for school leadership positions that require principal licensure, especially those aspiring to the principalship in the state of New Jersey, but also teachers who want to improve their leadership competencies
Aims	competency in each of the Standards for School Leaders developed by the Council of Chief State School Officers and endorsed by the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium; and a vision of school leadership that includes beliefs in democratic collaboration, diversity, equity, theory, critical inquiry, reflective practice, continuous improvement, student success, and ethical practice
Contents	Leadership in Learning Communities; Contemporary Issues in Schools and Society; Educational Research; Curriculum Design; Understanding Group Processes and the Psychology of Organizations; The Principalship; Clinical Projects in Educational Leadership (Action Research); Supervision and Evaluation: People, Programs and Performance Appraisal; School Management; Legal Issues; Policy; Field Experiences; Technology Competencies
Methods	case study, lecture/discussion, group problem solving, micro-conferencing technology, large and small group discussions, reflective inquiry through journal writing, problem-based learning activities, technology communications, action research, and field-based experiences
Pattern	ca. 90 days of course work* (36 'credit hours' = 36 semester hours over a period of 15 weeks = 540 hours) as well as 150 practice hours (30-40 hours per semester) within 2 years timetabling: programme follows the semester structure of the university; additionally two one-week summer courses
Status	mandatory; candidates may choose to attend approved programs at other universities in New Jersey
Costs	ca. 10.000 euro (ca. 9.300 US dollars) per participant; financed by the participant (reimbursement by local school districts is possible depending upon contracted agreements)

** If there is no specification by the provider as far as the number of days is concerned, we converted the contact time in hours into the unit 'course day' taking 6 hours training as one day.*