

STANDARDS FOR SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

A Critical Review of Literature

Lawrence Ingvarson
Michelle Anderson
Peter Gronn
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August 2006

Teaching Australia

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Published August 2006
ISBN 0-9775252-3-6

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Acknowledgement and Disclaimer: This project was funded by the National Institute for Quality Teaching and School Leadership, now Teaching Australia. Teaching Australia was established as the national body for the teaching profession, with funding provided by the Australian Government under the Australian Government Quality Teacher Programme. The views expressed herein are those of the authors and not necessarily those of Teaching Australia.

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List of acronyms

AAMT	Australian Association of Mathematics Teachers
ABLE	American Board for Leadership in Education
ACEL	Australian Council for Educational Leaders
ADL	Assessment Development Laboratories
AESOC	Australian Education Systems Official Committee
APAPDC	Australian Principals Associations Professional Development Council
APC	Australian Principals' Centre
ARC	Australian Research Council
ASTA	Australian Science Teachers' Association
CAT	Connecticut Administrator Test
CCSSO	Council of Chief State School Officers
CECV	Catholic Education Commission of Victoria
DPA	Dutch Principal Academy
GTCS	General Teaching Council for Scotland
ISLLC	Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (of the Council of Chief State School Officers, USA)
LEA	Local Education Authority
LIFT	Leadership Initiative for Transformation
MCEETYA	Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
NAHT	National Association of Headteachers
NBPTS	National Board for Professional Teaching Standards
NCATE	National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education
NCSL	National College for School Leadership
NPQH	National Professional Qualification for Headship
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OFSTED	Office for Standards in Education, UK
SEED	Scottish Executive Education Department
SQH	Scottish Qualification for Headship
TDA	Training and Development Agency (Formerly that Teaching Training Agency, UK)

Chapter One: Introduction

Project background

In June 2005, Teaching Australia - Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (formerly the National Institute for Quality Teaching and School Leadership, NIQTSL) commissioned the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) to conduct a project reviewing approaches to standards and options for a national system for assessment against school leadership standards for prospective and established school leaders.

The main stages in the project included:

- A critical review of national and international developments in leadership standards, leadership theory and research, and approaches to certification;
- A national consultation with relevant professional organisations, education authorities and other stakeholders, based on an issues paper; and
- Synthesis of responses to the consultation and preparation of a final report identifying options for a national approach to the development of school leadership standards and options for a national system for assessment against school leadership standards.

This document contains the review of literature, which maps recent and current developments in relation to standards for school leadership, professional learning and purposes for standards, such as professional development and certification¹, in Australia and overseas. It also provides a brief review of contemporary theory and research on leadership relevant to leadership standards. There is widespread concern about the recruitment, preparation, continuing professional development and recognition of school leaders. Leadership standards are a central component of most proposals for addressing these concerns.

National consultations based on the Issues Paper were completed in December 2005 and responses were received from over 80 organisations and individuals. A full record of the responses to the Issues Paper has been provided to Teaching Australia. There are many different models and frameworks for school leadership currently operating in Australia as well as elsewhere. The Issues Paper drew on a critical review of these developments and raised questions for discussion about the development and application of national standards for prospective and established principals in Australia.

¹ In this review, the term “certification” refers to an endorsement that a person has attained a defined level of knowledge and professional performance. Accreditation refers to an endorsement by a recognised agency that a course, program, or institution meets specified standards

The views elicited through this consultation process have fed directly into the draft paper on options for a national approach to the development of standards for professional learning and certification for school leaders, which is presented separately. A National Forum in November 2005 provided a further opportunity for the profession to contribute to the development of the Options Paper, which examined a range of possible purposes for leadership standards and principles on which they may be based.

The literature review makes links to the extensive work on standards already conducted in Australia, including the National Standards Framework developed by the Ministerial Council on Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA) and the work that Teaching Australia is conducting on advanced standards for teachers. This work, together with that in other countries, indicates a continuum between leadership standards for accomplished teaching and leadership standards. Recent standards for teachers, especially accomplished and highly accomplished teachers, commonly include expectations that teachers will increasingly provide leadership in a range of areas related to effective school functioning. The areas of school operation within which principals are expected to provide leadership are much broader, but the nature of that expected leadership action is little different.

Teaching Australia asked ACER to review leadership standards and certification from the perspective of “leadership of schools” rather than “leadership in schools”, with relevance to prospective and established principals. These are the two levels at which standards for principals are commonly pitched. Standards at the first level provide a guide to professional preparation for school leadership and a basis for professional certification. Certification can provide evidence of professional learning that employers may use in the selection of school leaders. Standards at the second level can provide independent professional recognition for principals who have made demonstrable and significant improvements to school functioning and student outcomes.

The changing context of school leaders’ work

In recent years, the context within which school leaders work has been characterised by increasing complexity in expectations for school leaders and greater demands for accountability. These changes have led to calls for more and better professional preparation programs, and greater attention to programs tailored to the needs of established school principals. The role of standards developers is to identify what is of central importance in the preparation of school leaders – to identify those features of leadership that are associated with student outcomes. These changes have also called for more attention to be given to the recruitment and selection of suitable school principals and to conditions of work that will increase the retention of effective leaders. Standards have a role to play here also in pointing to fair and valid forms of evidence to assess the performance of school leaders.

Each of the overseas countries in our review has conducted research into the effects of the changing context. This reveals similar concerns about the effects of increasing complexity and demands on school principals themselves and the attractiveness of the school leader's role to potential recruits. This concern is reflected in the recent Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) initiative, *Improving Leadership in Schools*, which will analyse school leader policies and practices across OECD countries. One of the most common initiatives is to improve preparation through more structured and sequenced standards-guided preparation programs (Huber, 2004). Not so common yet, are initiatives to remodel the scope and expectations of school leaders' work to increase its attractiveness and feasibility. This is another area where the task of developing professional standards potentially has an important contribution to make.

Changing expectations

Expectations of what teachers and school leaders should know and be able to do change over time and context, as they do in most professions. Standards must reflect those changes. But with school leaders, expectations often appear to have outstripped the quality and supply of training and support. Sometimes these changes are the result of substantive advances in professional knowledge based on research. School leaders are more likely to be expected to establish an accountable, professional culture in their schools than they would have thirty years ago. Sometimes the changes are more a result of changes in regulations or procedures that are specific to particular employing authorities. While there may be good grounds for these changes, they may not be related to improvements in opportunities for student learning. Sometimes it is difficult to make a clear distinction between these two types of changes, but developers of profession-wide standards may need to focus more on the implications of the former, while employers may need to focus more on providing professional learning that prepares people for particular roles within their system.

A common reform has been the introduction of self-managing schools. This has entailed the devolution or decentralisation of a number of new responsibilities to school leaders. At the same time, centralisation of curriculum control to national or state levels has often occurred, aligned with system-wide assessment and reporting of student achievement for accountability purposes. New responsibilities for principals include: managing and monitoring curriculum development, assessment and reporting; staff selection and performance management; financial management; mission building and managing reform; managing professional development; school accountability; and community relations and marketing.

Professional associations and employer groups recognise the importance of providing high quality preparation and ongoing development of principals. Governments undoubtedly have a duty of care responsibility to ensure that principals in all schools are well prepared. Professional bodies have a responsibility to establish systems for defining and enforcing professional standards. There is a mutual responsibility here for high quality preparation and practice.

Increasingly, governments are looking to a variety of providers of preparation programs. In Australia, eligibility to become a principal has required little more than a four-year teaching degree and registration. Yet, expectations and responsibilities for school leadership and management have changed, demanding better preparation and support.

The Victorian Department of Education and Training's report, *The Privilege and the Price* (2004) highlighted the paradoxical nature of school leadership. The study focused on principal class workload and its impact on health and wellbeing. The study set out to identify and understand the work expectations and role of principal class members and the affects on work-life balance.

Among the findings was that, as a group, principals and assistant principals report high levels of satisfaction with their job. Participants reported that their job was a "way of life" and while this brought high levels of satisfaction, this was not without significant impact on their home-life and health. Most felt this stress was getting worse over time in the job, not better. Escalating student welfare issues and feeling ill-prepared to deal with these and other expectations of the role were two of the reasons given by participants. Overwhelmingly, principals and assistant/deputy principals reported that they did not spend enough time on leadership of teaching in learning. The study indicates to standards developers that what principals say they value may not be what they have time to do.

Cranston et al's (2004) study of government secondary school deputy principals in Queensland found that 90 percent were satisfied or very satisfied with their role. However, only half reported an intention to seek promotion. For those who would not seek promotion:

the overwhelming reason. . . concerned lifestyle decisions; that is, a desire to balance work (school), home and family. This was coupled with a related set of reasons, which focussed on the view that the role of principal was too demanding and that there was significant accountability associated with the principalship...others valued the closer connection with the teaching and learning matters in school afforded through the deputy position (Cranston, Tromans, & Reugebrink, 2004).

Cranston's findings are echoed in a comprehensive study of principal aspirations in Victorian government schools (Lacey, 2003). Of about 1350 teachers and principal class members, only 12 per cent aspired to become principals. The five strongest disincentives to teachers seeking promotion to the principalship were (in order of strength): stress level of the job, time demands of the job, effect of the job on family, impact of societal problems on the role and the inadequacy of school budgets (Lacey, 2003).

Intensification of work

Implicit in much policy reform thinking is a presumed link between globally competitive national knowledge economies and the knowledge and learning capital of nations, and in particular the knowledge economy service role of schools (Mulford, 2005a).

This intensification of principals' and teachers' work poses an important dilemma for standards developers. Intensification is an unintended consequence of high-stakes school level accountability. It is having a deleterious effect on leadership succession and recruitment (Gronn & Rawlings-Sanaei, 2003; Williams, 2001), and is fuelling a climate of leadership "disengagement" (Gronn, 2003). While there may be a temptation to draft very detailed standards for principals and other school leaders, with the intention of being as exhaustive as possible in capturing the reality of their new work regime practice, this may be a temptation worth resisting. The reason is that highly specific and detailed "designer leadership" standards (Gronn, 2003) are likely to be viewed by school practitioners as exacerbating their already intensified patterns of work. In short, there is a fine line to be walked between standards that are seen as constraining (and therefore as potentially disempowering and devoid of professional acceptance) and standards that are accepted as supportive and enabling. It may become important to use the standards development process to set clearer boundaries around what can be expected of school leaders and what can be delegated and expected of those in existing or possibly new roles.

Recent developments in school leadership standards in Australia

Australia has had a vigorous period of standards development for teaching (less so for school leadership) over the past fifteen years or so. Professional associations and employing authorities have both been active. Through their national council (MCEETYA), state and territory ministers have also developed the National Framework for Professional Standards for Teaching (Ministerial Council for Education Employment and Training (MCEETYA), 2003) designed to provide common parameters for the more detailed development of standards – whether at national or state and territory levels.

School leadership professional associations, such as, the Australian Principal's Centre (APC) and more recently, the Australian Council for Educational Leaders (ACEL) have developed standards for school leaders. Several Catholic education authorities have developed standards, such as the Queensland Framework for Leadership in QLD Catholic Schools (2004). The Catholic Education Commission of Victoria's recently launched Leadership in Catholic Schools: Development Framework and Standards of Practice aimed at providing a pathway for teachers seeking to develop leadership capacities and move toward school leadership positions. Standards developed for highly accomplished teachers by subject associations, such as ASTA and AAMT, also include components related to teacher leadership in curriculum development, professional development and school policy.

In the main, the most widely used standards for school leadership in Australia have been those developed by state and territory governments and employing authorities in their capacity as major providers of professional preparation programs for principals. New South Wales has a School Leadership Capability Framework (2005) and South Australia has drawn on the Australian Principal Associations Professional Development Council's (APAPDC) five leadership propositions to underpin its Leaders Learning Framework (2005). Both are good examples. The Standards Framework for School Leaders (1998) developed by the Queensland Department of Education and the Arts is in the process of being revised. (See Appendix One for examples of sets of standards and guiding conceptual frameworks for school leadership from Australia).

The MCEETYA Framework was informed by a literature review and national consultation process. It integrates standards for teachers and school leaders. The architecture of the Framework is along two dimensions. The first, Career Dimensions, describes, in broad terms, a continuum of professional development from graduation and registration, through to competence, accomplishment and professional leadership. The premise is that as a teacher develops, so too does their sphere of influence opportunities. The second, Professional Elements, includes professional knowledge, practice, values and relationships. The Framework provides a key point of reference, potentially, around which future collaborative work for the development of profession-wide standards might be organised and a "common and recognisable reference point for professional engagement" (Ministerial Council for Education Employment and Training (MCEETYA), 2003).

Rationale for developing professional standards for teachers and school leaders

Perhaps the main reason for establishing school leadership standards is to increase the effectiveness of professional preparation and development for school leaders. It is primarily by engaging more teachers, school leaders and experienced principals in more effective professional learning that standards can make a major contribution to improving student learning.

Many quality sets of standards for teachers and school leaders have been developed in Australia, but most are specific to particular jurisdictions or employing authorities. They are not profession-wide. Teaching is almost unique among professions in this respect. In fact, most professions would find it odd that governments and employing authorities have played the major role in developing standards for teachers and school leaders.

There appear to be several reasons for examining the question of profession-wide standards for teachers, principals and school leaders.

Responsibility for the development and application of professional standards builds commitment to those standards. Imposition of standards leads to mere compliance.

Wise policy making in education strengthens commitment to the values that attract people into the profession. It does not attempt to replace it. Commitment to students and their learning is the engine room of effective practice. While the locus of authority for professional standards in a democracy must rest finally with government, the level of ownership and commitment to professional standards within a profession will depend on the extent to which members of the profession are entrusted with their development and determination of their uses. It would seem to be in the interests of all stakeholders that teachers have a strong commitment to their own standards.

Standards are often seen as a means to lift the professional status of teaching and school leadership. Claims to professional status are more likely to be taken seriously where there is a demonstrated capacity to articulate and to measure what counts as accomplished practice. Standards are the gateway to gaining greater professional self-direction. The most significant way in which school leader associations can offer leadership is through demonstrating a capacity to develop standards for school leadership and apply them to the assessment of practice. It is difficult to place a value on teaching and school leadership without a capacity to evaluate the practice of teaching and leading.

The capacity to develop standards is a necessary condition for any professional body if it is to claim a right to greater involvement in quality assurance related to professional preparation for leading schools and continuing professional learning and development. These are the central mechanisms for quality assurance in a profession. With credibility through standards, the profession can play a major part in their operation. Taking responsibility for the development and application of professional standards gives a firmer foundation for the profession to argue for quality assurance mechanisms that emphasise professional accountability over managerial control. The ability to define and enforce standards for practice is the defining credential of a professional body, the foundation for public credibility and trust.

The capacity to develop standards gives a profession greater say in defining the nature and scope of its work. Most commentators agree that the work of school leaders has intensified in recent years, with worrying consequences for the health and retention of principals. The development of standards is a way of setting boundaries and identifying the unique and essential components of school leaders' work. This draws attention thereby to the conditions that need to be in place to enable them to meet the standards.

Responsibility for the development and application of professional standards enables the profession to play a stronger leadership role in relating research to practice. Writers of standards must synthesise the implications of research on effective leadership practices.

Responsibility for the development and application of professional standards enables the profession to exercise more control over its professional learning system. Our

review of national and international literature indicates that teachers and school leaders have had limited say in systems for their own professional learning, compared with universities (especially in the USA) and government (as in England). The capacity to develop standards gives the profession the ability to play a stronger role in defining the long-term goals of their own professional learning. Professional standards place individuals in a more active role with respect to their professional learning. Valid standards clarify what school leaders should get better at over the long term, if they are to play a significant part in improving their schools.

Profession-wide standards may also help to overcome fundamental weaknesses in the professional learning system for school principals. There are many individually effective professional development programs and activities operating at school and system levels, but the overall pattern of provision tends to be brief, fragmentary and rarely sequential. The capacity of the profession to engage most of its members in effective modes of professional learning over the long term is weak. While the necessity of preparation programs for school principals is widely recognised, current provision falls far short of enabling them to meet all the standards necessary to improve learning outcomes for all students. Profession-wide standards are a means by which the profession can play its part in setting the agenda for school leader preparation and for the professional development of established principals.

Responsibility for the development and application of professional standards enables the profession to play a more significant role in providing recognition to members who meet its standards. This depends on the profession developing methods for gathering evidence, recording accomplishment and assessing performance regarded as professionally credible. Professional certification is a means by which the profession can offer its members a valuable, portable qualification. As well as providing a service to the profession, certification can also be a means by which the profession can offer a service to employing authorities who want to encourage effective professional learning and reward evidence of its attainment.

Two purposes of standards need to be distinguished in reading this report, each serving important, but different, requirements. The first is where professional bodies develop standards for the purposes of professional learning and certification, as above. The second is for the purposes that are properly the responsibility of employing authorities, such as performance management. The first is based on the expectation that prospective and established school leaders should keep up with developments in research and knowledge in their area of teaching and meet standards for (accomplished) practice. The second is based on the undeniable requirement that school leaders fulfil their contractual duties. The standards for these two purposes may look similar, but the audiences are different. This report focuses only on the first set of purposes.

Related to this, the brief for this review focused on school leadership rather than school management. Without getting into an old debate, it is recognised that leadership is only part of what school principals do. Schools need effective managers as much as they need good leaders. Principals, for example, are expected to be

organisational managers as well as leaders of effective teaching and learning. However arbitrary the distinction, this review will keep to its brief of reviewing developments in standards for school leadership.

Summary

The context of school leaders' work has increased in complexity, which has led to changing expectations of what school leaders need to know and be able to do. Key reasons for establishing school leadership standards are to increase the effectiveness of professional preparation and development for school leaders. In Australia, many quality sets of standards for teachers and school leaders have been developed but they are not profession-wide. The purpose of the present project, commissioned by Teaching Australia in June 2005, was to review approaches to standards and options for a national system for assessment against school leadership standards for prospective and established school leaders. The next chapter describes the approach to the review and introduces five systems of standards for school leadership, selected to focus the discussion in the subsequent chapters.

Chapter Two: Approach to the review of literature

Approach to the review of literature

It was important to set boundaries to this review. The literature on school leadership is vast and there are many sets of leadership standards. We conducted the review keeping in mind the potential roles that Teaching Australia might play as a body investigating the development of a national system of profession-wide standards for school leadership. We also kept in mind that our brief was to review leadership standards appropriate to teachers and school leaders preparing for school principal positions and to experienced school principals who have attained high levels of practice.

We cast a broad net in our initial sweep of the literature on standards, and came up with many examples, as listed in Appendix One. Standards were selected for further review only if they were part of a “system”, which meant that there was evidence that they were used for purposes such as professional learning and recognition through some form of certification.

The basic components of these systems provided a structure for our review. They include:

- a) *Standards* that describe effective leadership and what counts as meeting the standards;
- b) *An infrastructure for professional learning* that enables school leaders to develop the attributes and capabilities embodied in the standards;
- c) Methods for assessing and providing *professional certification* to school leaders who meet the standards;
- d) *Recognition* from school authorities for those who gain professional certification.

Although our net was cast wide, most systems that included these components came from English-speaking countries. The systems we chose to examine in detail included:

1. Western Australia: Performance Standards for School Leaders (Department of Education, Leadership Centre; Murdoch University and Edith Cowan University)
2. England: National Standards for Headteachers (National College for School Leadership, NCSL)
3. The Netherlands: Professional Standard for Educational Leaders in Primary Education (Dutch Principal Academy, DPA otherwise known as Nederlandse Schoolleiders Academie, NSA)

4. Scotland: The Standard for Headship (Scottish Executive)
5. Connecticut, USA: Standards for School Leaders (Council of Chief State School Officers Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium, ISLLC and Connecticut State Board of Education, USA).

While the literature review focuses on these standards systems, it also draws, where relevant, on many other examples of standards for school leadership in Australia and overseas. The USA alone has a wide variety of systems, linked to state requirements that teachers and other school personnel gain state licensure to be eligible to apply for principal positions, which have been subject to critical review (e.g. Levine, 2005). The five examples were chosen because they provided illustrations from different countries. They were developed by different kinds of agencies, usually employers or statutory authorities. In the Dutch case, they were developed by an independent professional body, making it of special relevance. We also sought examples where the standards had been operationalised; that is, the developers of the standards had worked on what it meant to meet the standards.

The following questions were used to guide our review of these five systems:

Standards

- Who developed the standards for school leadership and for what purposes?
- How were the standards developed, and on what foundation?
- What is included in the standards and how are the standards organised?

Infrastructure for professional learning

- How is professional learning organised to assist prospective or established school leaders to attain the standards?
- Who are the providers?
- How are the activities or programs funded?
- How do the activities or programs engage school leaders in effective professional learning?

Certification

- Who provides certification for prospective or established school leaders who attain the standards?
- What forms of evidence are used to assess whether the standards have been attained?
- Who assesses whether school leaders have attained the standards, and how are they trained?

- To what extent is the process of assessment for certification a vehicle for professional learning?

We used this framework and these questions to guide our review of each of the five systems above. These are the basic components of what might be called a standards-guided professional learning system. They can be applied to any profession. Taken together, these components form a standards 'system' of interdependent and mutually supportive parts. The four elements of standards, professional learning, certification and recognition are interlinked. Take one away and the system loses its capacity to function effectively as an instrument for encouraging and recognising evidence of professional learning.

We also asked these questions of each of the systems we reviewed:

- What evidence is there about the impact of the standards and certification system?
- What issues have been associated with the introduction and operation of a professional learning and certification system?

Five examples of standards guided systems for professional learning and certification

A brief summary of each standards system selected for review follows. Later chapters examine similarities and differences between these and other examples in the development of the standards, professional learning, assessment and recognition.

Example 1 – Western Australia

The first of the five systems selected is from Western Australia (WA). It is one of several Australian systems that would have been suitable for inclusion in this group for more detailed review. The Western Australian Leadership Centre was set up by the WA Department of Education and provides services to school leaders in that system. The Centre is an incorporated body and has representation from school leader professional associations, the Australian Education Union and the Department of Education on its Board of Directors. Funding for the Centre comes from the Department of Education. However, all decisions are made and implemented by the Board. The Leadership Centre is coordinated by a secretariat with a number of Project Managers who are seconded from the field for a rotational twelve-month period. These project managers develop professional learning and manage such projects as mentoring and induction.

The WA Leadership Centre developed the Performance Standards for School Principals in collaboration with researchers from the Edith Cowan and Murdoch Universities as part of an Australian Research Council (ARC) grant. The standards guide the WA Leadership Centre's Professional Learning Progression Chart. The Centre is the main provider of professional learning and completion of its courses

leads to certificates of school management and school leadership. A further level – a certificate of executive leadership – is planned.

A feature of the standards is the inclusion of performance levels on a set of “attributes” of school leaders, such as fairness and tactfulness, as part of the leadership standards framework. These performance levels help school leaders and others reflect on their performance and guide professional development. In collaboration with academics and school leaders, the Centre has developed scenario items grounded in schools’ contexts. Responses from prospective school leaders are used to assess the degree to which aspiring principals possess the eight personal attributes, values and knowledge identified in the Leadership Framework. Since 2005, all level 5 and 6² principals and district directors are selected using, in part, the standards scenario assessment approach.

Example 2 – England

In England, the government has given responsibility to develop and implement national standards to two agencies, both non-departmental public bodies. The Training and Development Agency (TDA) has responsibility for standards related to teacher training and continuous professional development for teachers (formerly, the Teacher Training Agency). The National College for School Leadership (NCSL) has responsibility for the leadership development and certification of middle-level leaders, aspiring and serving heads.

The NCSL recently produced a revised set of National Standards for Headteachers over a period of about eighteen months and commissioned a review of leadership learning that led to an increase in emphasis on principals’ experiences.

The NCSL prepares detailed specifications for professional development programs and calls for tenders from service providers who, together, cover the whole of England. The standards are being used by NCSL to guide the leadership development, assessment and certification of aspiring headteachers through the compulsory National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH). This program forms one part of a broader leadership framework, developed by NCSL. It is based on five stages of a school leader’s career, from “emergent leadership” (first time teacher leaders) through to “consultant leaders” (able and experienced school leaders taking on training, mentoring and inspection type roles beyond their own school).

² Levels are linked to a principal’s entitled remuneration. For example, primary principals or principals of schools with fewer than 100 students are categorised as Level 3. Level 6 principals are the most experienced.

Example 3 – Netherlands

The Dutch Principal Academy (DPA) is the only example among the five systems reviewed that is an independent, non-government body. This is partly a reflection of the highly devolved character of educational administration in Holland and the division of education into three autonomous school systems: protestant, catholic and non-denominational. The DPA is a professional body for leaders in primary education. Initiated by the former Minister of Education in 2000, the DPA is one example of a range of bodies facilitating access to optional preparatory and ongoing professional development in a national education system characterised by deregulation.

While the DPA is not a provider of professional learning programs, it does provide a clearinghouse of professional development programs for school leaders. Providers need to show that their programs are aligned with the Standard. In 2005, the DPA presented the Professional Standard for Educational Leaders in Primary Education. The DPA has developed a model of “core competencies of leadership in education”. At the centre are teaching and learning and this focus interlocks with eight areas of competence in personal and organisational effectiveness, such as leading staff and entrepreneurship. The key purpose of the Standard is to provide a framework to guide ongoing professional learning and certification. Defining the professional standard is seen as the responsibility of school leaders in primary education. The DPA also reviewed the literature about effective leadership. Over a four year development period, the DPA facilitated dialogue between principals, employers, teachers and other experts in the field. A process of ongoing validation of the Standard has been established. Currently, certification is voluntary. However, it looks like, from 2007, all aspiring principals will be required to complete a compulsory preparatory program and gain DPA certification.

Example 4 – Scotland

Scotland has a parliament with devolved powers within the United Kingdom for such matters as education and health. The Scottish Executive is the devolved government for Scotland and has the responsibility for the development and review of the “Standard for Headship”. The publication of *Ambitious, Excellent Schools: Our Agenda for Action* in November 2004 set a new agenda in relation to school leadership. Commitments were made to:

- establish a leadership academy, by the end of 2005, to give access to world class thinking on school leadership and to allow the sharing of experience of school leaders;
- revise the Standard for Headship in 2005 to ensure it continues to reflect shared leadership priorities in education;
- establish new routes to achieve the Standard for Headship, during 2006, to provide choice and alternatives to the Scottish Qualification for Headship; and

- recommend new and more rigorous procedures for selecting headteachers to take effect from the end of 2005.

The review of the original 1998 Standard for Headship took about twelve months. The revised version was published in December 2005.

The Scottish Executive, motivated by a need to avoid complacency when it comes to continuous improvement across the thirty-two Scottish Local Authorities, set up the Continuous Professional Development Advisory Group to oversee the development of the revised Standard. A sub-group of ten people, four of whom were serving headteachers, wrote the draft Standard. People could register online with the Scottish Executive to contribute to, and receive, updates about the consultation. The Standard is advisory in its status and is used, primarily, to guide the leadership development, assessment and certification of principals. One route to achieving the Standard, presently, is through the Scottish Qualification for Headship (SQH). This qualification is taken prior to being eligible for headship. It can be accessed through standard and accelerated routes, and university-led consortia run the Standard for Headship guided program.

Example 5 – United States

The most widely used set of leadership standards in the USA arose from the work of the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC). The Consortium was formed in 1994 as a project of the Commission of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) – a kind of Education Systems Official Committee (AESOC) in Australian terms – amid growing concerns about the quality of school leadership and ongoing support afforded to school leaders. Twenty-four states and four professional associations joined in the ISLLC project, the purpose of which was to develop the first set of profession-wide school leadership standards in the USA.

The modus operandi is that states take the ISLLC standards and adopt or adapt them for use as part of their licensure (certification) systems for school principals. All aspiring principals are required to gain a license to be eligible to apply for principal positions. In the past, licensure has required completion of a set of university courses, but increasingly other providers are gaining accreditation. We have selected Connecticut, one of over forty states to adopt and adapt the ISLLC Standards for School Leaders.

Connecticut's State Board of Education is the governing body of the Connecticut State Department of Education in the United States. It has responsibility for the standards and licensing assessments as the framework for the preparation, certification and evaluation of principals in the state.

Connecticut developed its own state standards before the ISLLC Standards were written, but subsequently checked them for alignment with the ISLLC standards. Multiple Connecticut committees representing the certification area were involved

in development, validation and standard setting. The two sets of standards, ISLLC and Connecticut, are not the same but provide an interesting example of how various states in the USA have used the ISLLC Standards. The Connecticut state standards sit within a broader infrastructure of state-developed tests, reviews of programs using test results and other policies and programs to improve leadership, which are evaluated for their effectiveness.

PD is offered by a variety of state, regional and district-based providers. Intermediate level certification requires aspirant principals to: complete successfully a state approved educational leadership program; meet teaching requirements; and pass the Connecticut Administrator Test requirements (CAT). The CAT is taken prior to graduation. PD support for the induction of new administrators is in the process of being developed. Ongoing PD course credits are required for professional certification and re-certification.

Summary of the five systems

Table I summarises the five systems included in the review. It indicates the name of the standards and agency responsible for them. It also lists the types of agency. The level of professional involvement and engagement varies between the different systems. Western Australia's Leadership Centre is an incorporated body that has representation from school leader professional associations, the Australian Education Union and the Department of Education. The Centre's function is sector specific like most of the examples of standards development in Australia. Funding for the Centre comes from the Department of Education with decisions made and implemented by the Centre's Board. The Dutch Principal Academy (DPA) in Holland is the only agency that would seem to warrant being called an independent professional body. The National College for School Leadership (NCSL), while a non-departmental funded body directly responsible to the Minister of Education, is able to operate with more independence than a typical government department. However, it would not be accurate to say it is an independent agency acting primarily for the profession. In juggling the roles of government agency, independent organisation and voice of the school leadership profession, the role of the NCSL as a government agency usually takes precedence.

Table 1: Responsible bodies for standards development

Standards Examples	Responsible Body	Type of Responsible Body
England National Standards for Headteachers (2004)	National College for School Leadership (NCSL)	Non-Departmental Public Body (responsible directly to the Minister of Education)
Netherlands Professional Standard for Educational Leaders in Primary Education (2005)	Dutch Principal Academy (DPA)	Independent Professional Body
Scotland Standard for Headship (2005)	Scottish Executive	Government
USA Connecticut Standards for School Leaders (1999)	Connecticut State Board of Education	Statutory Authority
Western Australia Performance Standards for School Leaders (in use by 1999)	Western Australian Leadership Centre	Incorporated Body

Most of these bodies serve the needs of a single government education sector. In this sense, they are not profession-wide. One profession-wide model we came across was the National Policy Board for Educational Administration proposal in 2001 for an American Board for Leadership in Education (ABLE), based on the same model as the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (See Box 1 below). Although ABLE has the status of a proposal, it is of interest to this review for two reasons. First, it is an example of an independent profession-wide agency designed for the specific purpose of providing professional certification and second, it is the only model to focus on “Advanced Standards for Educational Leaders” and certification.

Box 1: Example - The American Board for Leadership in Education (ABLE)

The American Board for Leadership in Education was intended to be an independent, autonomous voluntary system of advanced certification for principals and superintendents. It was to draw on the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards³ as a model for a professional learning system. Emphasis was to be on leadership development that adds value to the government's/employer's organisation, structure, finance and governance of schools. The writing and evaluation of the standards was to be carried out by the profession and facilitated by ABLE. This was to involve the development of one or more 'standards' committees made up of practitioners; scholars and educators; and a public and professional review. It was proposed that the standards be developmental for leaders to aspire to over time. The proposal suggested funding for 30 months for initial planning and policy development activities. This would include initial standards development work that underpins the purpose, architecture and assessment of the certification system. Acceptance of different pathways to becoming an advanced leader was proposed. The minimum requirement was to be 3-5 years experience as a principal or superintendent. The proposal was supported by the National Association of Secondary School Principals and endorsed by President Clinton's Secretary of Education but was shelved with the change in administration in 2001.

We will return to each of these examples of leadership standards and certification systems in more detail in later chapters, comparing and contrasting the approaches they take to developing standards, promoting professional learning, and determining whether the standards have been met.

The next chapter provides a brief review of recent research and contemporary theories about school leadership. Developers of standards must ask hard questions of educational researchers. These are questions about the implications of contemporary research for practice – for what school leaders should know and be able to do, cutting through fads and fashions in contemporary discussions about leadership among academics. Standards developers ask whether there is a cumulating body of knowledge and what this knowledge suggests for the nature and content of preparation programs and experiences.

³ See L. Ingvarson and E. Kleinhenz (Forthcoming) "Standards for Advanced Teaching – A Review of National and International Developments." This literature review conducted for Teaching Australia contains an overview of the NPBTs model.

Chapter Three: Contemporary theory and research on school leadership: Implications for standards

Changing conceptions of school leadership

Agencies responsible for the development of standards require a clear definition of leadership. They also need a strong evidence base of knowledge about leadership with which to specify the particular standards that together comprise the overall standards framework. These requirements pose a significant challenge for agencies in both the general field of leadership and in the particular field of school leadership.

There are three main reasons for this challenge. First, leadership lacks a universally agreed upon and accepted definition (although it is interesting that our literature review indicates considerable commonality in the content of standards from different countries and from different states within Australia). Despite its traditional and continuing popularity, leadership has always been, and remains, an essentially contested concept amongst scholars and practitioners. Second, there is nothing natural about leadership. That is, as a way of describing the conduct of human beings during their co-ordinated efforts to accomplish organisational projects, the warrant for labelling the dynamics of these relations as “leadership” (rather than, say, power, influence or authority etc.) is entirely arbitrary. Third, the leadership knowledge base is diffuse. This is because the behavioural referents that afford the concept of leadership its concrete reality have always been and remain open to a range of conflicting interpretations as to their meaning. The basis, validity and implications of these claims are evident in the review of developments in the field, which follows.

As a domain of inquiry, leadership is diverse and multi-faceted. It comprises a hybrid aggregation of knowledge from across the social sciences and the humanities. Bass (1990), for example, synthesised over 7,000 studies. Historically, numerous scholarly influences shaped the emergence and growth of the field. In this development, four traditions were important: behavioural analyses of small group relations in natural and experimental settings; post-Freudian psycho-analytic studies of group dynamics and clinically-informed field studies; theories of organisational structure, function and process as sub-fields of organisational sociology; and, analyses of both leader-follower and elite-mass relations in twentieth century national, political and social movements.

Educational leadership is a sub-component of this general field. Although it followed a different pattern of development, educational leadership scholars have drawn liberally on general understandings of leadership. Along with the study of leadership in the higher education, training and allied sectors, educational leadership includes the leadership of schools. As an area of interest and inquiry, “school leadership” was consolidated as recently as the early-1990s by which time it was beginning to replace such increasingly discredited discourse as “educational administration” or “educational management” (Grace, 1995). This switch in titles is significant, for it

paralleled the emergence of a movement for school re-structuring and reform amongst scholars, politicians and policy-makers in a number of countries.

The espoused focus of this movement was the enhancement of student learning and the devising of effective school and classroom practices intended to facilitate this outcome in government schools. As part of the pressure for school-level improvement, traditional scholarly concerns with knowledge related to school- and system-based roles (e.g. personnel, finance and curriculum management) were jettisoned in favour of change-oriented knowledge and evidence-based performance outcomes (Murphy & Shipman, 1999). It was as part of this re-orientation that the leadership of school-level champions assumed normative significance as agents and instruments of “transformation”. This kind of leadership conception appealed strongly to early proponents of school leader standards such as the developers of the ISLLC standards.

Currently, however, educational leadership is riven by theoretical and methodological differences that have resulted in scholarly disputation over research priorities and problem definition (Heck & Hallinger, 2005). Despite this malaise within the parent field, there are three main vibrant foci of interest in the school leadership literature: transformational leadership, distributed leadership and teacher leadership. Before considering each in turn, the earlier point that “leadership” lacks conceptual specificity requires due acknowledgement. Not only that, but numerous scholars and commentators have also been curiously reluctant to define their terms (Rost, 1993). Both this imprecision and the absence of agreement about the meaning of leadership create headaches for the measurement of its effects (see below) and for the translation of aspects of leadership into clearly articulated standards of performance.

On the other hand, a direct legacy of the small group relations tradition referred to earlier has been the broad acceptance that leadership is associated with disproportionate patterns of influence in social interaction. Although influence has defied precise quantification, it is nonetheless taken for granted by most writers that “leaders” exercise preponderantly more, and “followers” significantly less, influence over the course of their mutual deliberations. These relativities of influence presume that leadership is an identifiable “property” of individuals (i.e. an attribute or capacity). Recently, however, in reaction to this “entitive” view of leadership, there has been a growing emphasis on process, emergence and the dynamics of relations. This is captured by the word *leading*, rather than the statics expressed by *leadership* (e.g. Hosking, 1988). This emphasis on process is reflected in the growing scholarly and policy uptake of the idea of distributed leadership and the allied notion of communities of practice.

There are two implications of these points for standards development. First, as yet the scholarly switch in emphasis from objects and entities to processes has not influenced school leadership standards to any substantial extent. This is mostly because school standards remain closely aligned to the roles and tasks of individuals designated as school leaders. Second, with regard to the link between standards and

roles, in some instances leadership standards specify particular roles while in other cases the standards are generic and the roles unspecified. The NPQH in England is an illustration of the former trend and the ISLLC standards in the USA provide an illustration of the latter.

There is a further point. Not only do the six ISLLC standards avoid specifying particular roles, they also retain some of the older discredited language⁴. Thus, the six ISLLC standards are introduced by a sentence which reads: "A school administrator is an educational leader who..." These points pose two additional challenges for standards developers: one, the question of whether or not standards should be linked to particular school roles (e.g. principals, assistant principals) or articulated in general terms; two, if they are to be linked to particular roles, then to which roles and on the basis of which criteria might such role-related standards be differentiated? These are issues that standards developers working with Teaching Australia will need to address as they begin their task. There will almost certainly be a need to reach a point of some complementarity between profession-wide standards for school leaders and areas of knowledge and practice expected of school leaders that are specific to particular school systems and schools.

Transformational leadership

In a benchmark extensive historical review of leadership, Burns (1978, p. 4) distinguished between two types of leaders: transactional and transforming. While he defined leader-follower relations in the former type as analogous to a market exchange or contract (i.e. support for a leader in return for favours), Burns grounded the latter type of leadership in ethics and viewed leader-follower relations as akin to a morally elevating compact or covenant between both parties. Acknowledging his intellectual debt to Burns, Bass (1985) reworked Burns' categories by broadly retaining his transactional type and then shredding "transforming" of its moral content in the interests of articulating a leadership type geared to what he termed "the higher order of change". This type he called transformational leadership. Versions of transformational leadership have found favour with both school leadership commentators and also standards developers.

In Bass's original definition of a transformational leader there were four distinguishing criteria: idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Bass, 1985). Recently, as a result of difficulties experienced with operationalising each of these factors, the four have been reduced to three. The first two have been collapsed into a new category: "charisma-inspiration". Further, transformational and transactional leadership have both been subsumed under a descriptive rubric known as "full-range" leadership (Bass, 1998). In the school leadership field, Leithwood & Jantzi note that transformational leadership "represents an extremely popular image of ideal practice" (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005). In their own research, and in their review of

⁴ The ISLLC Standards for School Leaders were being revised at the time of this literature review.

thirty-two empirical studies of transformational leadership in schools (for the period 1996-2005), along with an earlier review (Leithwood, Tomlinson, & Genge, 1996) of thirty-four (mainly quantitative) studies (for the period 1982-1993), Leithwood and colleagues have introduced a number of modifications to Bass's original typology. In their most recent study, for example, the typology has been augmented with a series of management and organisational design dimensions, with the result that it "has progressed far beyond the model used in research guided by Bass's conception and using the MLQ [Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire] for collecting data" (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005).

The earlier points about standards and roles connect directly with these reviews by Leithwood and colleagues. Thus, unlike the findings of their 1996 review, two-thirds of which studies derived from research on the role of principals, in the more recent 2005 review the actual role incumbents subsumed within the overall synthesis of "transformational leadership behaviours" (TLBs) have been found to be much more indeterminate in their application. Despite this wavering between role applicability and non-role applicability, Leithwood & Jantzi (2005) conclude positively that the body of empirical research findings to date suggests that transformational school leadership "is beginning to be significant". In some ways, this broad assessment of the possible utility of this type reflects the earlier ISLLC standards preference for a general, non-role specific view of standards.

Distributed leadership

A growing number of scholars, in both the general leadership field and within the school leadership community, have become dissatisfied with transformational leadership. In the latter domain, this dissatisfaction represents a reaction to the idea of "the power of one" and an implicit conception of a "super-principal" in notions of principal-led transformational reform and high stakes accountability policies (Copland, 2001). The allegation of some of its critics that transformational means "only" heroic and top-down leadership has been resisted by proponents (e.g. Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005).

Nonetheless, dissatisfaction with the heroic overtones in transformational, visionary and charismatic approaches to leadership has resulted in a renewed search for "post-heroic" understandings of leadership. In particular, over-reliance by apologists for school reform on headteachers and principals as the paramount school leaders explains, in part, the recent upsurge of attention accorded distributed leadership (Harris, 2004). If the transformational leadership of principals denoted a resurgence of the idea of entrepreneurialism and an attempt to harness its potential, contemporary interest in distributed leadership is evidence of a different impulse. In some ways, there is a tension at the intellectual heart of the school reform movement between effectiveness and improvement, and there is a growing realisation that to engineer improved schooling over time requires the enhanced capacity, not just of one person, but of many. If sustained school-wide capacity-building requires collective and co-ordinated effort, this in turn may also require the leadership of the many, rather than the one, a point which school heads now

acknowledge (Harris, 2004). If this broad argument is correct, then it poses an altogether different challenge for the developers of standards. That is, distributed leadership standards for school leaders might need to accord a high priority to skills associated with role coordination and the ways in which task-related roles “inter-lock”. Or, standards for school leaders may need to give more attention to the capacities that enable school leaders to ensure that leadership is distributed effectively in their schools.

The concept of distributed leadership originated in the 1950s. Precursors of its recent resurgence were provided by March (1984) and Sergiovanni (1984) who each highlighted the functional virtues inherent in an organisation’s leadership “density”: i.e. the leadership of many members reduced dependence on an individual at the top of the organisational pyramid and also spread the overall burdens of responsibility. Recent evidence of the extent of the penetration of the idea of the leadership of the many is provided by Reid et al (2004), who counted a mere sixteen teachers of a total of sixty-eight staff in one UK secondary school (or 24 percent) who were “without a significant leadership role, or roles”. At the heart of the idea of distributed leadership is both a rejection of the presumed leader-followers division of labour, which somehow migrated from the small group relations research contexts mentioned earlier to the study of whole organisations, and an emphasis on the interdependence of organisational colleagues. If Burns (1978) is correct in his claim that “billions of acts” comprise the leadership process, then the accomplishment of the totality of these acts over time requires the co-ordination of the efforts of numerous individuals acting in concert (March, 2005).

Distributed leadership acknowledges that different individuals (not merely the incumbents of formal positions) will emerge as sources of influence on different occasions, in accordance with the requirements of the tasks to be performed. In this sense, there may be multiple leaders (Gronn, 2002a, 2002b; Gronn, 2004) and patterns of leadership may also be expressed in holistic formations, in spontaneously formed or institutionally mandated sets of working partnerships and shared roles (Gronn & Hamilton, 2004). This perspective gives strong grounds for ensuring that standards for professionals working in schools reflect a continuum of expectations for leadership contributions, from classroom teachers to the school principal. If leadership is more a quality that pervades effective professional organisations than a bundle of personality traits, then the concept of distributed leadership calls for standards for school principals that emphasise their critical role in building such an organisation. Effective school leaders spawn leadership actions and initiative from members of their organisation.

Leithwood, et al (2004) caution that further conceptual work may be necessary to clarify the practical application of distributed leadership in schools, a point which relates closely to the earlier idea about a school’s overall “density” of leadership. Such clarity is possible, provided leadership is not confused with authority. Unlike leadership, which is not position-based, authority resides in, and derives from, role responsibilities. For this reason, leadership distribution across a school is consistent with the exercise of authority by principals and school middle managers.

Teacher leadership

In one sense, the dispersal or distribution of leadership in a growing number of schools represents “a recognition by principals that they cannot do it all themselves” (Day & Harris, 2002). The implied over-burdening of principals in this observation also accounts, in part, for the current interest in teacher leadership. This is a form of leadership that privileges the idea of teachers’ agency. That is, in this conception teachers are viewed by proponents as not merely the implementers of initiatives and proposals devised for them by others, but teacher-generated innovation and initiative-taking are endorsed as integral elements of teacher professional working practice.

Proponents of teacher leadership see it as linked closely to the literature on school improvement (Day & Harris, 2002), in particular the issue of the sustainability of improvements (Mulford, 2003a, p. 2). These proponents (e.g. Frost & Durrant, 2002, 2003; e.g. Harris, 2003) also view it as conceptually adjacent to, or as overlapping with, distributed leadership and as closely associated with the idea of a professional learning community of practice, defined by Muijs & Harris (2003) and Day & Harris (2002) as one in which: teachers participate in leadership activities and decision-making; have a shared sense of purpose; engage in collaborative work and accept joint responsibility for the outcomes of their work.

The idea of teacher leadership has been articulated for some time in the USA, although interest in the UK and Australia has been more recent (Harris, 2003). Moreover, Little (2003) has shown how understandings of the leadership of teachers have shifted in emphasis in response to successive macro-level switches in policy. Such shifts were evident in an examination of three data sets collected for separate projects in the USA over two decades. Despite these changes in understanding, Day & Harris (2002) maintain that there are four enduring core dimensions of teacher leadership. These are:

- a brokering role for teachers in which they assist colleagues in the translation of school improvement principles into practice;
- collaborative work by teacher leaders with colleagues to foster participation and collegiality;
- a “mediating” role in which teacher leaders utilise their own expertise as a resource for the benefit of colleagues, and especially; and
- the fostering of shared and mutual learning about, and for the improvement of, professional practice.

This list raises at least two sets of implications for standards developers. First, it illustrates the earlier point about diffuse leadership knowledge. This is because it is uncertain from this list whether the four dimensions apply to all teachers, or to just some. It is also unclear whether the dimensions themselves are empirically distinct from each other or whether indeed they overlap, as they appear to do. Second, the list invites questions about the relationship between this presumed leadership work

of teachers and the leadership role of principals. To what extent, for example, is the leadership of teachers and principals different or to some degree overlapping, and how might those differences and/or commonalities be captured in the wording of leadership standards?

Once again, this is an issue for those who might work on the development of profession-wide standards for school leaders in Australia. The emerging literature on leadership, as described above, points to the need to regard leadership as part of a continuum and a component of teachers' work. Leadership is part of the widening role of teachers as they gain experience. It is noteworthy that standards for accomplished teachers nearly always include the expectation that an "accomplished" teacher will provide professional leadership in their school, such as that listed above. While the scope of leadership expected of school principals is almost certainly broader, it is questionable whether the nature of leadership action is different.

The impact of school leadership on improving teaching and learning

Scholarly interest in, and research on, the possible impact of school leaders (in particular school principals) on student learning has recently coalesced around the search for "leadership effects" (Teddlie, 2005). The potential significance of this work for leadership standards lies in whether or not effects can be shown to be linked to the actions of leaders, so that these actions might provide a basis for identifying standards.

An important antecedent of leadership effects research has been instructional leadership. This conception emerged in the English-speaking world in the 1980s as part of a focus on school effectiveness, although in some societies (e.g. Denmark) the idea of instructional leadership is "foreign" (Mulford, 2003a). In those countries where the idea has currency, instructional leadership is taken to refer empirically to "leading teachers' professional learning" (Southworth, 2002). While this form of leadership has been concerned mostly with the instructional role of principals as leading professionals, there is a far from consistent voice in the literature about who is responsible for leading teachers' learning. When instructional leadership is linked to a role, then it is usually the principal who is seen as the instructional leader. Principals as instructional leaders, according to Hallinger (2005b) have tended to be viewed by proponents of this form of leadership as behaving in ways consistent with the heroism mentioned earlier. On the other hand, the "leading" of teachers' professional learning referred to by Southworth is also attributed more generally to "school leaders". In the event that instructional leadership might be embodied in leadership standards, standards developers will require clarification of this inconsistency in the attribution of sources of the leadership of instruction.

Although interest in instructional leadership waned somewhat in the 1990s with the ascendancy of transformational leadership, there has been a recent plateau of interest in the principal's instructional role in North America (Hallinger, 2005a; Hallinger, 2005b) and an increased interest in Britain (Southworth, 2002). In a very

powerful illustration of the potential of instructional leadership, Timperley (2005) provides a qualitative case study of the leading of teachers' learning by a senior school administrator. Timperley shows the focused way in which an external consultant, an assistant principal with curriculum responsibilities and classroom teachers collaborated over twelve months to produce both evidence-based changes in teaching practice that yielded learning gains for students. On the basis of her field intervention, Timperley (2005) concludes that "if instructional leadership is to be distributed across people and situations, then skills in promoting such learning also need to be distributed". This conclusion highlights the importance of standards developers allowing for the sharing of instructional leadership across roles rather than confining it to one role.

Turning specifically to studies of principals as instructional leaders, evidence of their impact on classroom learning is weak. Indeed, the evidence of impact over more than two decades is sufficiently weak for Hallinger (2005a) to conclude that the resources devoted to the development of principal instructional leadership "would appear to have been a failure" and that the classroom door remains as "impermeable a boundary line for principals in 2005 as in 1980". Evidence for this assessment is based on a frequently cited succession of reviews by Hallinger & Heck (e.g., 1996a; Hallinger & Heck, 1996b) of the effects of principals' leadership. Specifically, these reviewers (Hallinger & Heck, 1996a) considered forty international studies conducted over fifteen years (1980-1995) that investigated the links between principal leadership behaviour and school effectiveness by modelling direct, mediated or reciprocal effects, and they concluded that direct effects were "non-existent, weak, conflicting, or suspect in terms of validity".

Where principal leadership was found to make a difference, it was "aimed toward influencing internal school processes that are directly linked to student learning" (i.e. school policies and norms, and teachers' practices). That is, principal effects on student achievement are mainly indirect (see especially Mulford, 2003a). Subsequently, on the basis of an updated review to 1998, Hallinger & Heck (1999) concluded that "mission-building is the strongest and most consistent avenue of influence school leaders use to influence student achievement", although "considerable ambiguity" remains as to how this influence occurs. Clearly, there is some comfort here for standards developers for, while the precise mechanisms of indirect influence remain obscure, the most productive principal leadership practices seem to be linked to mission building, building capacity among teachers and creating effective organisational structures and culture (Leithwood et al., 2004).

The technicalities associated with identifying these missing causal "links" and mechanisms were subjected to a detailed and extensive review by Levačić (2005). Her withering verdict on leadership effects is that:

Given the vast literature on educational leadership and management and the presumption of government policy-makers that the quality of educational leadership affects student outcomes, the actual evidence for a causal relationship is relatively sparse.

This discrepancy between belief in, and evidence of, differences made by principals to student learning has been endorsed in two other recent reviews (Bell, Bolman, & Cubillo, 2003; Mulford, 2005b). Part of the difficulty faced by researchers in identifying possible causal effects between the behaviour of agents (e.g. principals) and its impact on learners stems from the lack of definitional agreement about the meaning of “leadership”, which was the problem highlighted at the beginning of this chapter. This absence of definitional clarity makes the precise and unambiguous specification of measures of variables virtually impossible. Moreover, evidence of statistically significant relationships between quantitative variables is simply that: a co-relationship is not evidence of causality (Levačić, 2005). A compounding factor in attempting to assess the impact of leadership is what Levačić (2005) refers to as the problem of the counter-factual. That is, “one cannot observe what student outcomes would have been for the same students in the same school but with different leadership”. In sum, then, while there may be some evidence of links between leadership and school effectiveness (i.e. improved student learning), the magnitude of the effects that may be produced and the mechanisms that might produce them continue to elude school leadership researchers (Teddle, 2005).

Australian evidence, in particular from the LOLSO project (Silins & Mulford, 2002), also demonstrates that leadership makes a difference. This leadership is both position-based and distributed. Consistent with the review by Leithwood et al (2004), this combination of leadership is indirectly related to student outcomes. In the LOLSO study, organisational learning (OL) involving three sequential development stages (trusting and collaborative climate, shared and monitored mission, and taking initiatives and risks), supported by appropriate professional development was the important intervening variable between leadership and teachers’ work, and then student outcomes. That is, leadership contributed to OL, which in turn influenced teaching and learning, particularly in regard to students’ perceptions of how teachers organised and conducted their instruction, and their educational interactions with, and expectations for, their students. Students’ positive perceptions of teachers’ work were found to directly promote their participation in school, their academic self-concepts and their engagement in schools. Student participation was found to be directly related and student engagement indirectly related (through retention) to academic achievement. Finally, school size was negatively related, while socio-economic status and, especially, students’ home educational environments, were positively connected to these relationships.

Implications for developers of standards for school leadership and principal preparation

This discussion of the leadership and school leadership literatures provides few clear-cut guidelines for agencies charged with the development of standards. One clear conclusion from the research is that, in relation to student learning, there is little or no evidence of *direct* school leader (i.e. principal) effects. In so far as the work of principals as school leaders affects the learning of students, the effects are likely to be *indirect*. The emerging scholarly consensus is that these important indirect effects coalesce around the three areas identified by Leithwood et al, 2004,

namely: mission building, building capacity among teachers and creating effective organisational structures and culture. These point to a helpful way forward for standards developers. To this end, there are a number of issues they must address. The principal ones may be framed as questions:

- Given that researchers sometimes refer to the school leadership of particular persons while at other times their focus is more general, to what extent should school leadership standards be drafted generically for “school leaders” or be focused on specific school-level roles?
- In the event that leadership standards may be drafted in role-specific terms, which roles will be enshrined in standards and how will these various standards-defined leadership roles inter-relate?
- Notwithstanding attempts (e.g. Hallinger & Heck, 1999; Mulford, 2003a; Mulford, 2005b) to reconcile the need for a “heroic” transformational leadership paradigm and the reality of distributed leadership, there is the potential for a split between these divergent understandings. In these circumstances, how might standards for school leaders address this tension and seek to accommodate both sets of understandings?
- Given that school leadership commentators attach a high priority to the role of leadership in building collective overall capacities and school-level capabilities, what implications does this have for individually defined sets of leadership standards?
- How might standards for school leadership support and enhance the sustained high level work performance culture increasingly expected of school leaders, without simultaneously producing a potentially negative impact on the recruitment of next-generation principals and teacher leaders?

As will be discussed in the next chapter, writers of standards always have to tread a path between normative claims and empirical evidence; between professional values and research. Professional standards are grounded in both. Where possible, claims about what school leaders should know and be able to do should be justified by research. Ultimately these claims will rest, however, on claims about what is valued about the work of schools.

Summary

The issues raised in this chapter and summarised as questions above point to a number of challenges for writers of profession-wide standards for school leaders. They will face the task of identifying what should be common to a set of school leadership standards, no matter where school leaders work. That is, they will face the task of identifying what school leaders should know and do no matter what the context. At the same time, they will face the challenge of distinguishing those features of school leaders’ work that are appropriate to a set of profession-wide standards from those that are specific to roles and responsibilities within particular employing authorities or schools. As discussed in the previous chapter, the content

of standards varies according to the purpose of the standards. There is almost certain to be a considerable amount of overlap between profession-wide standards for school leaders and role specific criteria developed by employing authorities for purposes such as principal selection and the management of school leader performance.

Nevertheless, there would still appear to be an important role for writers of profession-wide standards in attempting to identify common or essential features of effective school leadership practices. One of these might be in highlighting the challenging and interesting aspects of the work of school leaders – the significance of the role. In this way, profession-wide standards would be useful in recruitment in highlighting the attractive features of school leaders' work. Another is that profession-wide standards may help in setting realistic boundaries to the scope of school leaders' work and what is expected of school leaders. In this way, profession-wide standards might help to address the problems mentioned in the previous chapter about the intensification of school leaders' work.

Writers of professional standards for school leadership face a challenging task. The field lacks agreement on a definition of leadership and the knowledge base about effective leadership in schools is limited. However, as we shall see in Chapter Five, there is considerable commonality in the content of standards for school leadership from different countries and different states and territories in Australia. The next chapter reviews recent thinking on definitions, purposes, and principles for professional standards and in relation to the development of standards for school leaders.

Chapter Four: Standards: Definitions and purposes

The previous chapter highlighted the magnitude of the task for standards writers if they are serious about defining profession-wide standards. However, while the research literature on school leadership provides few clear-cut guidelines for agencies charged with the development of standards, there is, nevertheless, a remarkable degree of similarity in the sets of leadership standards emerging internationally.

Despite the debates about leadership in the academic literature review, standards writers often converge on a similar set of elements of good leadership, as this chapter and the next make apparent. This may be because standards writers get on with identifying core leadership practices, roles and responsibilities and tend to avoid defining what they mean by leadership. Alternatively, it may be because standards writers pay a lot of attention to each other's work.

This chapter provides a brief review of recent thinking on definitions, purposes, and principles for professional standards generally and in relation to the development of standards for school leaders.

Definitions of standards

The *Shorter Oxford Dictionary* gives two definitions of the word 'standard':

- Distinctive flag (often fig. of principle to which allegiance is given or asked; the royal &c-raise the – of revolt; free trade, &c); and
- Specimen or specification by which the qualities required of something may be tested, required degree of some quality, levels reached by average specimens (attrib.) serving as test, corresponding to the – of recognised authority or prevalence.

Both definitions can be applied to the development of standards for school leaders. In the first, standards would articulate professional principles and values. Like the flag on ancient battlefields, they would provide a rallying point.

Standards are also measures, as indicated by the second definition – “the required degree of some quality”, for example. Standards are tools we use constantly in making judgements in many areas of life and work, whether measuring length, evaluating writing or critiquing restaurants – even assessing the performance of school leaders. Standards provide the context of shared meanings and values that is necessary for fair, reliable and useful judgement.

In the first sense, writers of leadership standards would aim to arrive at a consensus on the principles that drive practice and guide professional relationships. A straightforward example might be:

Highly accomplished principals are committed to their students and their learning

In the process of developing standards, school leaders would endeavour to identify and understand the distinctive features and aspirations of their profession – the unique things that effective school principals know and do. The process of writing standards for school leadership, understood in this sense, unites people around shared ideals and values, and encourages the reconciliation of divergent approaches to practice. Standards are statements about the features of leadership that are most valued in the profession.

Standards for school leaders, like those for classroom teachers, ultimately rest on professional norms and values about what kinds of learning we value as a society. Education is ultimately and inescapably a moral enterprise. Standards developers need to articulate a vision of quality learning that will guide their more detailed work of describing what teachers and school leaders should know, believe and be able to do to provide opportunities for that kind of learning.

Reaching a consensus about principles is a necessary part of standards development, but it is a consensus that needs to be justified in terms of research and the wisdom of expert practitioners. Practitioners who develop the standards must also reach agreement on the scope of their work – the boundaries as it were – if the work is to be feasible for average mortals.

To be useful for purposes such as professional learning and recognition, standards must also be understood in the second sense of the dictionary definition: as measures. Simplistic distinctions between development and assessment are not helpful here. The two necessarily go together. Assessment is the foundation for the kind of feedback that is necessary for effective professional learning.

One of the hallmarks of a profession is its demonstrated capacity to define and evaluate quality performance. Standards writers will constantly press researchers about the things that teachers and effective school leaders know and do. These are vital both for self-assessment and for useful feedback and assessment from professional peers. To place value on school leaders' work and provide useful feedback, it is necessary first to be able to evaluate records of leadership performance within a framework of shared meanings and values. As Sykes and Plastrik (1993) note:

A standard is a tool for rendering appropriately precise the making of judgements and decisions in a context of shared meanings and values.

Developing standards for school leadership

Sykes and Plastrik (1993) point out that the word “standard” carries different usages and nuances. One of these is the idea of a standard as a legally recognised unit, such

as that of Greenwich Mean Time, or the Gold Standard, or the Standard Metre in Paris for measuring length. Another is the notion of a standard as “an authoritative or recognised exemplar of perfection”, such as the sacred books of a religious organisation. Yet another usage refers to “a definite level of excellence, attainment, wealth or the like” such as “standard of living” or a particular level of proficiency (Sykes & Plastrik, 1993).

When standards are used as measures of performance, for purposes such as professional recognition and certification, there are three essential steps in their development. These are:

- Defining what is to be assessed (i.e. what is school leadership? What are the essential elements of good leadership?). These are often called content standards;
- Deciding how it will be assessed (i.e. how valid evidence about practice (leadership) will be gathered); and
- Identifying what counts as meeting the standard, or how good is good enough. This leads to performance standards, which specify the level of performance that meets the standards.

This definition is a useful reminder that a complete definition of standards needs all three components above. That is, content standards (what are we measuring?), rules for gathering evidence about performance (how will we measure it?), and performance standards (how good is good enough and how will we judge the evidence?). A full set of standards points to how evidence about capability and performance will be gathered, and how decisions will be made about whether the standards have been met. While content standards define the scope of (a school leader's) work, performance standards are needed to tell us how good a (school leader's) performance needs to be to meet the standard. We found few examples of leadership standards in the review that met this criterion, or even understood that it was necessary for fair and valid decisions based on the standards, such as certification or selection.

A guiding conception of leadership

Developers of content standards for school leaders need guiding conceptions of what leadership is. It is not sufficient for a set of standards to spell out or map the territory of school leadership like a job description or a list of responsibilities, yet this is what many sets of leadership standards tended to be in the past. It was possible to read them and be none the wiser about the meaning of “leadership” that underpinned them.

Here is an example from Fullan (2001) of what, among others, could be used by standards developers as a guiding conception of leadership:

The litmus test of all leadership is whether it mobilises people's commitment to putting their energy into actions designed to improve things. It is individual commitment, but above all it is collective mobilisation." (Fullan, 2001)

This conception points to a standard for school leadership that is measurable. To illustrate, Fullan elaborates this concept of leadership into five components, including:

- Having a clear moral purpose;
- Relationship building;
- Understanding and managing change;
- Knowledge creation and sharing; and
- Ensuring coherence and alignment of structures.

These five components provide a guide to a school leader about what they need to know and be able to do in preparing to lead and manage a change effort. It is possible to imagine, for example, asking a school leader to provide a "story" of an instance when they led and managed a change initiative in some area of school functioning - one that led to improved teaching and learning. The school leader might be asked to include evidence in their story related to Fullan's five components. The five components could then form the foundation of a rubric for assessing the school leader's performance against the standards.

It would then be possible to imagine asking a group of carefully trained peers whether the evidence in the story provides clear and convincing evidence of the five components of Fullan's concept of leading and managing change. That is, whether the school leader has shown that they have met the standard – that they have demonstrated the capacity to lead and manage change in an educational setting. These would be the steps involved in operationalising a leadership standard. (In fact, this conception of leadership is the basis of a portfolio task, *Leading and Managing Change*, developed by ACER for accomplished principals.)

Finally, and most important, is the link between the process of completing the assessment task and professional learning. The task of putting together such a story in something like a portfolio entry necessarily engages people in the most effective kind of workplace learning. The assessment task, with all the steps involved in learning about the standards, preparing the evidence and reflection on one's practice, is in itself an excellent vehicle for active, school-based professional development. This shows the close connection between assessment and learning

As measures therefore, standards not only describe what practitioners need to know and be able to do to put these values into practice; they describe how attainment of that knowledge is to be assessed, and what counts as meeting the standard. A standard, in the latter sense, is the level of performance on the

criterion being assessed that is considered satisfactory in terms of the purpose of the evaluation.

Developing content standards

Standards that describe the nature and scope of a professional's work are usually referred to as 'content' standards. As in educational measurement generally, content standards set out the domain of what is to be assessed (but not what counts as meeting the standard). They set out the main areas of practice and provide elaborations on what the standards mean in terms of what practitioners should know and be able to do.

Here is a set of three core leadership practices grounded in research that could form part of the content domain of a set of school leadership standards. They are taken from a recent report by Leithwood et al. (2005) that reviews research on how leadership influences student learning. Each could be seen as an area within which a school leader could exercise leadership and lead and manage a change initiative.

1. Setting directions
2. Developing people
3. Re-designing the organisation (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005)

Each is elaborated on in the report, but together they form a strong set of organisers for the content of a set of leadership standards. As the research reviewed by Leithwood et al. (2005) indicates, these core practices are related (indirectly) to student achievement. It is possible to argue that, as standards, they have content validity. That is, the standards arguably identify the knowledge, skills and attitudes possessed by effective leaders. Other reviews of effective leadership practices could be used to define content standards for school leaders (e.g. Mulford, 2003a; Mulford, 2005b).

As another example, the National College for School Leadership (NCSL) standards from England have, instead, six main organisers, setting out the content of the standards:

1. Shaping the Future
2. Leading Learning and Teaching
3. Managing the Organisation
4. Developing Self and Working with Others
5. Securing Accountability
6. Strengthening Community

While each of these sets from Leithwood and the NCSL provides a powerful group of organisers for the content of school leadership standards, a full set of content

standards needs to drill down deeper to accurately represent what school leaders need to know and be able to do to provide quality learning opportunities for students. For example, most recent sets of standards for school leaders usually have a standard that refers to the importance of Building Professional Culture along the following lines:

Research indicates that the knowledge and skills of its teachers are the most important educational resource that a school possesses in meeting its mission to provide quality opportunities for students to learn. Highly accomplished principals establish a strong professional culture in their schools that nurtures and develops those resources.

This standard, Building Professional Culture, might be found under Leithwood's Developing People organiser above, or the Developing Self and Working With Others organiser from the NCSL. The standard can be justified in terms of research. Over the past twenty years, increasing numbers of researchers have identified the existence of an active, accountable professional community within and across schools as important for effective teacher development and high quality teaching (Little & McLaughlin, 1993; Louis, Marks, & Kruse, 1996).

The final step in this approach to writing content standards is to provide a more detailed explanation or elaboration of the standard. Box 2 gives an example of an elaboration of the standard, Building Professional Community, developed by ACER. Once again it is important to note that the elaboration starts to tease out the various facets of the professional community concept, to illustrate the areas where school leaders might take action, and to point to types of evidence that one should see in, for example, a portfolio entry that a school leader was submitting to show that they had met this standard.

Box 2: Elaboration of the standard - Building Professional Community

Research indicates that strong professional communities are characterised by shared norms and values, a collective focus on student learning and welfare, collaboration, deprivatised practice and reflective dialogue (Louis et al., 1996).

Highly accomplished principals focus on building the capacity of their teachers to teach to high professional standards. They ensure that the workplace is as much a site for teacher learning as it is for student learning. They enable professional reflection and learning in the workplace and, thereby, enhance the quality of teaching and learning. Teachers work in teams that enable them to explore one another's ideas and to question their beliefs and practices. Teachers engage in collegial planning and review of how well their teaching is meeting students' needs. An ethic of enquiry pervades the school about teaching and learning. Schools with a performance and development culture know that feedback, in as many forms as possible, is essential to effective professional learning and the improvement of practice.

Box 2 continued..

Highly accomplished principals establish a working environment that enables teachers to teach as well as they possibly can. Principals in these schools know that the quality of their teachers is the most important educational resource they have. Teachers feel supported and valued in schools with a performance and development culture. There are shared standards for accomplished teaching and credible mechanisms for providing recognition to teachers who meet those standards. Principals take steps to maximise the time that teachers can spend productively on tasks related to teaching.

Highly accomplished principals recognise that leadership is a quality that pervades effective organisations, not a responsibility restricted to staff in designated administrative positions. They provide teachers with leadership roles and opportunities to learn through taking on wider responsibilities. They provide leadership roles and time for highly accomplished teachers to work with other teachers on the core business of monitoring and enhancing the quality of teaching and learning.

Highly accomplished principals establish a professional community characterised by collegiality, joint work, innovation and research to enhance the school's problem-solving capacity. Practice in professional organisations is guided by professional values and expertise. Professionals need to play a strong role in decisions related to their practice, but, as they often face non-routine problems, they also need time to bring their values and expertise to bear on those problems – interpreting the evidence and identifying appropriate courses of action. Schools with a performance and development culture ensure time for such purposes is available.

Highly accomplished principals establish an accountable professional culture characterised by high expectations for student learning, deprivatisation of teaching practice and norms of collective responsibility for student learning outcomes. Professionalism is understood to imply mutual accountability among teachers for the quality of practice, not autonomy interpreted as privacy. Teachers expect to keep up with research in their teaching field. Principals in schools with a performance and development culture model the professional development and accountability practices they seek to promote among staff members.

Highly accomplished principals establish a culture of continuous improvement. A performance and development culture is not an end point. It is a collective state of mind characterised by continuing self-evaluation of practice and openness to better ways of doing things. A strong professional community is a learning community. A learning profession is tolerant of risk-taking among its members so that teachers can refine their practice and deepen their understanding about they can best support students in their learning. This quest never ends.

Characteristics of well-written standards

Several features of a standard such as Building Professional Culture and its elaboration are noteworthy. The first is that it points to a large, meaningful and significant “chunk” of school leaders’ work – it is an example of the purposes they are trying to achieve. It is not a micro-level competency, or a personality trait. School leaders readily identify this type of standard as referring to an authentic (i.e. valid) example of the kind of work they do (or should do). The standard is well grounded in research on the characteristics of effective schools.

The second is that the standard is context-free, in the sense that it describes a practice that most agree accomplished principals should follow no matter where the school is. By definition, a professional standard applies to all contexts in which professionals work (which is not to say that context does not affect practice). No matter where a school is, building professional culture in that school over time is likely to be regarded as a core responsibility of the principal.

The third feature is that the standard is non-prescriptive about how to build professional culture; it does not standardise practice or force school leaders into some kind of straightjacket. There are many ways to build a professional culture. While the standard identifies an essential element of good leadership, it does not prescribe how the standard is to be met. In this way, the standard also allows for diversity and innovation.

The fourth is that, as a standard, with its elaboration, it points to something that is measurable, or observable. It is possible to imagine the kinds of evidence that a principal might assemble over time to show that they have strengthened the various components of professional community in their school and met the standard.

In summary, good standards should:

- be grounded in clear guiding conceptions of leadership;
- be valid; that is, represent what school leaders need to know and do to play in promoting quality learning opportunities for students;
- identify the unique features of what school leaders’ know and do;
- delineate the main dimensions of development the profession expects of its members – what school leaders should get better at over time, with adequate opportunities for PD; and
- be assessable; that is, point to potentially observable leadership actions.

Methods of assessing performance against the standards

In each of the countries reviewed for this report, there is a trend toward performance-based methods of assessing teachers and school leaders against standards rather than methods based on evidence of course completion. Course

completion in itself is no longer regarded as a valid indicator that a person has met performance-based professional standards. The trend toward more authentic forms of assessment for professional certification found generally across the professions, both for initial registration and for advanced levels of professional certification. The term “performance”, as used here, refers to an authentic case or instance of a teacher’s or a school leader’s work over time and situated in context (such as Building Professional Community in an English Department around collaborative assessment of student writing).

The trend is closely related to research on more effective modes and designs for learning and program delivery. These emphasise the need to create a wide range of opportunities to gain leadership experience through taking on and documenting small scale leadership projects, such as leading and managing a change initiative in a particular area of school functioning that improves learning opportunities. This kind of experience creates stepping stones for teachers from the classroom to school leadership. Here is a summary of the guidelines for a task called Leading and Managing Change, developed by ACER that a teacher might complete and enter into their portfolio:

The portfolio task invites you to document an initiative in which you led and managed a change effort with colleagues in your school. Their project will have aimed to meet an important need related to student learning by enhancing the quality of teaching in your school. In your entry, you will provide evidence for the need, your project plan to meet that need, what happened during the implementation of your project, the improvements in teaching and learning that took place, and finally you will reflect on what you have learned about leading and managing change (8-10 pages).

Teachers and school leaders are very good at creating assessment tasks like this that are authentic examples of what school leaders should know and be able to do. Good portfolio tasks provide opportunities for effective collaborative reflection on practice with colleagues and learning in the workplace. To increase reliability in the assessment, these new methods for gathering evidence about school leaders’ performance require aspiring school leaders to undertake several authentic teaching tasks, each providing evidence relevant to several standards. Good portfolio entries, are based on the natural harvest of evidence that can be gathered in the normal course of school operation

In summary, here is a list of principles to guide the development of valid tasks for gathering evidence about school leader performance:

- Tasks should be authentic and, therefore, complex;
- Tasks should allow for the variety of forms that sound school leader practice can take;

- Tasks should be open-ended, allowing school leaders to show their own practice;
- Tasks should be fair; that is, they should give school leaders a fair chance to demonstrate the quality of their practice;
- Tasks should provide ample opportunity and encouragement for analysis and reflection;
- Research-based knowledge should underlie all performances;
- Tasks should encourage school leaders to exemplify good practice;
- Each task should provide evidence relevant to a cluster of standards; and
- Each standard should be assessed by more than one task.

Specification of required evidence – spelling out what evidence school leaders need to provide as evidence and how to present it – needs to be precise for an evaluation to be valid and feasible – and fair. This requires carefully structured portfolio tasks with guiding questions, not an open ended invitation to fill a wheelbarrow. Vague or imprecise requirements often result in teachers and school leaders presenting an oversupply of evidence that bears little or no relation to the relevant standards, so that making accurate judgements becomes difficult or impossible.

Assessing the evidence and setting performance standards

The final stage in developing a set of standards is setting performance standards. While content standards define the scope of school leaders' work, they do not tell us how good a school leader's performance needs to be in relation to the standards. Or, put another way, content standards alone do not tell us what a satisfactory level of performance is on the assessment tasks. The key question to be answered in setting performance standards is, "How good is good enough?" Setting standards, and training teachers and school leaders to use them in assessing evidence can be just as complex as identifying the content standards. Evidence gathered by ACER over recent years suggests that teachers and school leaders can do this very well. The process involves developing scales and scoring rubrics, weighting different tasks and sources of evidence, identifying benchmark performances, and training assessors. Recent experience indicates that teachers and school leaders can reach high levels of reliability assessing evidence in relation to the standards.

Purposes for school leader standards in broader perspective

The focus of this review is on standards developed by professional bodies for purposes to guide professional learning and provide professional certification. However, there is a wider range of purposes for teaching and school leadership standards that needs to be acknowledged and distinguished from these foci. These can include, for example,

- Standards used by employers in making periodic reviews and decisions about whether school leaders are fulfilling their contractual duties. These legalistic standards would be used in dismissal or retention decisions;
- Standards used by employers to make selection decisions, such as whether a person is eligible for appointment as a school principal;
- Standards used by teacher registration bodies in making decisions about whether to register, and deregister, teachers and school principals; and
- Standards developed by employing authorities and professional associations for school teachers and school leaders to use for self-analysis and reflection on practice.

The nature and content of these standards will vary according to their purposes and the audience and the standards will be used to make different kinds of decisions. The sources of these standards may also include, among others, parliamentary statutes and ministerial regulations, unlike professional standards that are usually based on professional values, research and experience. The most common standards for school leaders are those developed by employers for purposes such as performance management and annual reviews of school principals. They may be used in making decisions about annual bonuses or salary increments. In all these examples, standards provide the basis for evaluating performance. The content of the standards will vary to some extent according to the purpose. In all these examples, the fairness of the decision depends fundamentally on the rigour of the assessment.

Two broad purposes for standards emerge from this analysis, serving different audiences or groups. The first group of purposes, such as performance management, is unquestionably the responsibility of employing authorities, in the interests of the tax-paying public. They are based on the undeniable requirement that school leaders are required to fulfil their contractual duties. The second is where professional bodies develop standards for the purposes of professional learning and recognition. It is based on the expectation that prospective and established school leaders should keep up with developments in research and knowledge in their area of teaching and meet standards for accomplished practice. The standards for these two purposes will be similar, but the audiences are different. This report focuses on the second purpose.

Summary

Writers of standards always have to tread a path between normative claims and empirical evidence. Recent thinking on the definition of standards highlights the need for two key dimensions. Firstly, standards are a rallying point for the articulation of professional principles and values. Secondly, standards are tools that can be used constantly to make judgements about the performance of school leaders. The two dimensions necessarily go together for effective professional learning and ongoing development.

Developing standards for school leadership involves three key steps. A necessary first step is to define the content of the standards, in other words what is to be assessed. Here standards developers need guiding conceptions of what leadership is. These concepts underpin what leaders need to know and be able to do. A key characteristic of a well-written standard is that it points to a meaningful and significant “chunk” of school leaders’ work, as it is not sufficient to simply articulate or map out a job description.

A second step in the development of standards involves deciding how valid evidence about leadership will be gathered. A well-written standard will not be prescriptive about how it should be met. Increasingly, in the countries reviewed for this report, there is a trend toward performance-based methods such as portfolio tasks (See Chapter Four, Section Five for an example). Thirdly, identifying whether a standard has been met also needs consideration. This step involves considering the level of performance demonstrated in, for example, a school leader’s portfolio entry. This process involves the development of scales and scoring rubrics, weighting different tasks and sources of evidence, identifying benchmark performances, and training assessors. Evidence gathered by ACER over recent years suggests that teachers and school leaders can do this very well. However, fewer examples can be found of systems comprehensively addressing this third step in standards for school leadership.

Two key purposes for having school leadership standards are to guide professional learning and provide professional certification. However, school leadership standards are also being used for other purposes, such as to assist with selection decisions and self-analysis and reflection on practice. The next chapter looks in more detail at purposes for developing standards in the five selected systems and approaches used to develop standards in those systems.

Chapter Five: Approaches to developing standards for school leadership

The previous chapter canvassed recent thinking on definitions, purposes and principles for professional standards. This chapter focuses on the actual development of standards, particularly in the five systems introduced in Chapter Two. It commences with a review of purposes and principles in the five systems and then compares how each has developed their standards. The chapter concludes with a discussion about three issues for standards developers: guiding conceptions of school leadership, the knowledge base about quality school leadership and dealing with the issue of context.

For each system, we asked the following questions:

- Who developed the standards for school leadership and for what purposes?
- How were the standards developed, and on what foundation?
- What is included in the standards and how are the standards organised?

Purposes underpinning standards for school leadership

As discussed in Chapter Four, it is important to clarify the purposes to which standards will be put before writing commences. Standards written for professional learning and certification purposes by a professional body will be different from standards written by an employing authority for performance management purposes. Purposes shape the scope, the content and the structure of standards.

Across the five systems (introduced in Chapter Two) the espoused purposes for standards for school leadership looked very similar. Common purposes shared by all five systems were for the standards to:

- Clarify expectations about school leadership for all those affected by it (e.g. principals, staff, parents, pupils, employers and policy makers);
- Enhance student learning outcomes;
- Enhance the quality of educational leadership;
- Provide a framework for professional development;
- Provide a framework for certification;
- Provide a framework for self reflection and assessment; and
- Provide a basis for determining eligibility for school leader positions.

Some researchers have suggested that greater clarity of expectations for school leaders could help to address other purposes, such as increasing the representation of women in school leader positions (Huber, 2003; Kim & Kim, 2005a, 2005b). In each of the five systems, standards were also being used to assist with employment

issues such as “succession planning”; “recruitment and selection”; “principal preparation”, “licensure and registration” and “career progression”. Within these broader purposes, other uses of the standards were emerging specific to particular employing authorities. England’s standards, for example, are being used to guide:

- position descriptions for principal vacancies;
- self-assessment by individuals, particularly when applying for a new position; and
- the development of ‘accounts of practice’ to illustrate how the standards apply in a variety of contexts.

The purposes listed above tend to reflect the fact that most of the systems selected for this review were government agencies. Consequently, the emphasis is different from the rationale for profession-wide standards outlined in Chapter One, which emphasised the role of standards in building a stronger role for the profession in quality assurance functions.

Differences between the five systems become more apparent later in the chapter. While standards developers may start with similar purposes, the content of standards can vary considerably.

Principles guiding the writing of standards

Chapter Four indicated the two faces of standards; standards as rallying points and standards as measures. Writers of standards not only need clear purposes to guide their deliberations; they need principles that set out a vision of quality practice and the values that underpin it. In the case of standards for school leadership, standards need a guiding conception of leadership itself. Fullan’s (2001) definition of school leadership was given as one example in Chapter Four. Principles need to emerge from an extensive debate that embraces all interested parties.

There are several meanings of “principles” to be found in the literature on teaching and school leader standards. There are principles about what should be in the content of standards, principles about how to write good standards, and principles about the procedures that a profession should follow if its standards are to withstand legal challenge.

Among the five systems in this review, the ISLLC Standards for School Leaders document was the most explicit about the principles that were developed to guide the writers of their Standards for School Leaders. Members of the Consortium decided that standards for school leaders should:

- Reflect the centrality of student learning;
- Acknowledge the changing role of the school leader;
- Recognise the collaborative nature of school leadership;
- Be high, upgrading the quality of the profession;

- Inform performance-based systems of assessment and evaluation for school leaders;
- Be integrated and coherent; and
- Be predicated on the concepts of access, opportunity, and empowerment for all members of the school community (Council of Chief State School Officers, 1996).

It is a good idea to keep a set of principles to a small number that can be “held” in the head easily, if they are to be a constant reference point. Each of these principles was designed to be a “touchstone” for the validity of “emerging products” and as a way to “give meaning to the standards and indicators”.

While this is undoubtedly a useful list, on closer analysis, it appears to confuse different types of principles. For example, some principles are about the values that should underpin the standards (e.g. they should reflect the centrality of student learning), and some are principles about the way the standards should be written (e.g. they should be integrated and coherent; they should be high), and some are more like purposes (e.g. they should inform performance-based systems of assessment and evaluation for school leaders). Also, as a list of principles in the sense of propositions about leadership, the ISLLC list does not provide a guiding vision of what school leaders should know and do.

The English system also identifies principles, but in less detail. The key principles are that the work of headteachers should be:

- Learning centred;
- Focused on leadership;
- Reflective of the highest possible professional standards.

In their consultation response to England’s draft standards, the National Association for Headteachers (NAHT) said that these principles were so vague that they were virtually meaningless (9 June 2004). It would appear they were right, in the sense that the principles reveal little about what school leaders should know and do. What the members of NAHT sought were clear unambiguous principles about what effective principals do, devoid of jargon.

None of the other three systems from the Netherlands, Scotland and Western Australia, is explicit about the principles that guide their standards. In some cases, it is possible to infer the principles from the introduction to the standards. The DPA Standard states, for example, “Defining the heart of the profession is pre-eminently something that has to be established by leaders in primary education” (p. 1). Standards developers have a responsibility to articulate the key propositions about what school leaders know and do that framed their more detailed work of writing standards.

After providing a critical review of several existing sets of standards, Leithwood and Steinbach (*Forthcoming*) propose what is in effect a set of “standards” for standards - an overarching set of seven meta-level “principles” that can be used to evaluate a set of school leadership standards.

1. Standards should acknowledge persistent challenges to the concept and practice of leadership
2. Standards are claims about effective practice and should be justified with reference to the best available theory and evidence
3. Standards should acknowledge those political, social and organisational features of the contexts in which leaders work that significantly influence the nature of effective leadership practices
4. Standards should specify effective leadership practices or performances only, not skills or knowledge. The authors say that choice of knowledge to teach is based on an assumed (logical) relationship between knowledge and practice.
5. Dispositions should not be included in any standards.
6. Standards should describe desired levels of performance not just categories of practice
7. Standards should reflect the distributed nature of school leadership.

These are demanding “meta-level standards” for standards writers. They are “principles” of a different type from those above, which are about values – they are principles about how to write standards. They can be compared with the characteristics of good standards that we developed in Chapter Four.

The authors argue that these seven standards will lead to more defensible sets of standards for school leaders in the future. We will use them as reference points in comparing the five standards systems in this review. It is noteworthy how Leithwood and Steinbach give prominence to the need to ground standards in research and the need to keep them under constant review. The fourth point reinforces the point made in Chapter Four about the Building Professional Community standard - that the standards should focus on leadership practice and performance – they should reflect authentic (i.e. valid) “chunks” of what leaders do, rather than micro-competencies.

Some would disagree with Leithwood and Steinbach’s point that dispositions have no place in professional standards. Indeed, dispositions appear in all the standards we reviewed in one form or another. Leithwood and Steinbach’s concern is that writers of standards focus on research that identifies the knowledge, the actions and the practices of effective school leadership that have an impact on student learning and avoid locating the secret of effective school leadership in the personality traits of the leader. In fact, it would contradict Leithwood and Steinbach’s second principle to include dispositions and personal attributes in standards as there is no research, to our knowledge, that shows a consistent and significant relationship between the personal attributes of school leaders and student learning outcomes. The long

search for the personality characteristics of effective teachers also proved fruitless (Getzel & Jackson, 1963), revealing little more than the self-evident (e.g. that teachers rated good are sympathetic, not cruel). Likewise, principals rated effective are more likely to be fair and decisive rather than unfair or indecisive; as are people in most walks of life.

Leithwood and Steinbach's sixth principle confirms the point made in Chapter Four: that a set of standards is not complete (or useful) if it does not operationalise the standards. That is, if it does not indicate how performance will be assessed and what level of performance indicates that the standard has been attained. The implications of a distributed approach to analysing leadership, their seventh principle, were discussed in Chapter Three, one of which is the importance of school leaders who can provide leadership opportunities for others in important areas of school functioning.

A third type of principle is relevant in developing standards. As many agencies become involved in developing standards across a range of professions, it has become increasingly important to develop "procedural" principles to guide the work of the various standards bodies across the professions. The primary purpose of these procedural principles is to enable professional standards bodies to withstand challenges to the validity of their standards, especially when the standards are used for high stakes decisions such as selection or certification.

The process by which a set of standards is developed is a critical issue, not only for the validity of the assessment procedures, but also for their legal defensibility. If the procedures for developing standards are to be regarded as valid and legally defensible, it is important to ensure:

- the integrity and independence of the body responsible for developing the standards;
- that the standards developing body is composed primarily of those who are already highly accomplished practitioners;
- that the diversity of perspectives in the profession is represented;
- that the process of defining the standards is developed on a sound scientific basis and that the process of developing the standards be formally documented; and
- that a wide sampling of agreement is sought for the standards from the major professional groups and other interested parties regarding the appropriateness and level of the standards.

This list of procedural principles points to the potentially valuable role that Teaching Australia can play as an independent body in bringing professional associations and other interested parties together in the development and application of school leadership standards – to help them achieve what they can not achieve alone. These procedures reflect the fact that professional standards and certification agencies have learned from experience that there is a need to ensure a degree of distance or

separation between the professional associations and the bodies that have final responsibility for development and application of the standards for purposes such as certification.

A moment's reflection makes the need for standards bodies to operate at an arms length from professional associations clear. The primary purpose of professional standards and certification is to provide guarantees and safeguards to the public in return for the trust the public has placed in professional bodies to develop them, not to promote the self-interest of professions. Recent experience in several other professions, such as medicine and accountancy has driven this point home. The public has a vital interest in ensuring that bodies entrusted with responsibility for the implementation of professional standards are responsive to the interests of the wider public, not only the profession.

Procedural validity, therefore, calls for independent professional standards bodies with the capacity to ensure that its standards are valid and its procedures for applying them rigorous. Care needs to be taken to include other interested parties such as the public and employers in the development process. This is to avoid potential dangers in some professions of the relationship becoming a little too cosy and not necessarily placing the public interest first. While this is unlikely in education, it is still an issue to be considered.

We found few developers of standards, apart from ISLLC, who made explicit the principles on which they based their standards, but that is likely to change as the teaching profession becomes more involved in developing profession-wide standards that it wants key stakeholders to regard as credible.

Stages in developing the standards for school leadership

Across the five systems, the processes used to develop the standards typically included the following phases:

1. *A review phase* – the function of this phase is to inform and gather information about the current knowledge base about school leadership and standards development.
2. *The establishment of a committee(s) phase* – the function of this phase is to establish a group(s) who will act as the dedicated 'engine room' for the coordination, writing and consultation.
3. *A consultation and validation phase* – the function of this phase is to check the quality of the standards against a range of criteria including validity, build commitment, and gather the views and opinions of those affected by the standards.
4. *A publication and use phase* – the function of this phase is to raise awareness of the existence of the standards and embed the standards into the professional learning and certification system.

A brief overview of the above phases, as implemented by the five systems, is presented below. We have used the phases as a guide to identify the similarities and differences between the systems – in practice the above phases tended to overlap.

Western Australia

Key responsibility for writing the Western Australia's Leadership Centre's Performance Standards for School Leaders went to a small team of researchers working with principals and other school leaders. The duration of development was about ten years and the standards development was based on a collaborative project between the Western Australian Department of Education and Training through its Leadership Centre with Edith Cowan and Murdoch Universities.

The project was supported through research grants from the Australian Research Council (ARC) and additional infrastructure support from the Western Australian Leadership Centre. The three-phased research project involved, for example, a review of existing teaching and principal standards from Australia and overseas, interviews with approximately 1000 school administrators, development of brief narrative accounts/systems of ordinary incidents of school leadership and the administrators' ratings of a set of seventy-four cases. School leaders (N 1530) judged the performances of the principals in the narratives on a four-point scale (poor, adequate, good, very good, unable to rate). From the content and statistical (i.e. Rasch) analysis, certain attributes such as fairness appeared consistently in the judgements made by school leaders, regardless of the context. Two further rounds of data collection (1997 and 2003) focused on school leaders' judgements of the way the attributes shape actions of leaders.

The researchers concluded that "Accomplished performance is characterised, not by displaying more of an attribute, but by balancing competing demands in particular contexts" (Wildy & Pepper, Forthcoming). Workshops were also run by the researchers with school leaders throughout Western Australia. A dedicated website was set up to communicate and educate school leaders and others in education about the standards and their use. The current website has fifty-six brief narrative accounts or cases classified against eight attributes (<http://isp.ecu.edu.au/ssl/index.php>). A further 116 unclassified narratives are also available. The website states, "The Leadership Framework is grounded in practitioners' work and is recognised and owned by the profession" (<http://isp.ecu.edu.au/ssl/index.php>). The standards are used as part of the Centre's Leadership Framework (see later in this chapter) and underpin all the Centre's professional learning offerings and assessment (see Chapter Six). State education employers are also using the standards and accompanying assessment to assist with selection of Level 5 and 6 principals.

England

England's National Standards for Headteachers had one writing/coordination group of five people. One person from NCSL was the lead writer and editor, the origin of the four other people is unknown. The duration of development took about 18 months. A consultant was commissioned to conduct a review of leadership learning. Key methods used for this development phase included focus groups, interviews and a literature review.

England's standards writing group wrote one section of the standards together and then took one section each to write. Two rounds of national consultation with Local Education Authorities (LEAs), Higher Education Institutions (HEIs), Governors, Professional Associations and headteachers followed a preliminary consultation of the draft standards. Key methods for the consultation were web feedback, facilitated discussions and a questionnaire. The standards are used, primarily, to underpin the professional learning for certification of aspiring principals. Employers are also using the standards to assist, for example, with recruitment and selection processes, while individuals have noted the standards provide a framework for self-assessment when, for example, applying for a new position.

Netherlands

In the Netherlands, a partnership between the DPA and a university facilitated the development of the Professional Standard for Educational Leaders in Primary Education. This partnership conducted a literature review and facilitated the establishment and running of multiple stakeholder groups in primary education. A key question driving the development of the Standard was "Which competencies should Dutch principals have to become an effective principal?"

A complex but systematic online process was used to develop and annually review the DPA Standard (See Appendix Two). Central to the process, three panels of 20-30 principals, middle management personnel and superintendents decided on the content of the Standard. The panels had an online discussion about the Standard three times per year and were supported, throughout the process, by another panel comprised of twelve highly regarded experts on leadership and management. This expert panel functioned as a sounding board for the other panels, providing input for discussion and validation of the Standard. After each discussion round, all principals registered with the DPA received a written report about the discussion, which they could then respond to and have this response included in the panels' next discussion round. Consultation with other stakeholders, such as parents, was sought through the use of questionnaires, interviews and conferences. Duration of the standard development took about four years.

The DPA continues to use the approach, described above, for its annual review and ongoing validation of the Standard. Members of the three central discussion groups are replaced every two years. The Standard is being used to guide, for example, the

development of self-assessment tools against the standard and principal preparation program development, and to act as a quality assurance framework for principals in their selection of other professional learning.

Scotland

The Scottish Executive (i.e. the government) established an Advisory Group to oversee the revision of Scotland's Standard for Headship. A sub-group of ten people, four of whom were serving headteachers, had responsibility for writing the standard. The main method of consultation, set up by the Executive, was an online questionnaire. Individuals could register their interest in contributing to the consultation and receive regular updates. Focus groups with headteachers were also conducted throughout Scotland. The consultation period was three months and organised around specific questions about the draft standard, such as, "Is the focus on professional actions of the headteacher helpful? "Is the Standard comprehensive or does it need more detail? If so, where?" Written responses from forty-seven stakeholders were received by the Executive. Most of the stakeholder responses were from Local Authorities (twenty-three). The next three highest numbers of responses were received from universities (six), unions (four) and education groups (four). There was no specific category for headteacher or teacher responses.

Overall, the development of the revised Standard took about twelve months. The revised Standard was published in late 2005. The Standard is used to guide, for example, the content and assessment in the national qualification of headship program and school leader self assessment, and assist with employer performance management.

USA

The Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) established the ISLLC consortium to write the Standards for School Leaders. This group comprised two Chairs and twenty-four other people from state education agencies and representatives from professional associations. A smaller sub-group of ISLLC wrote the standards. A series of large and small group developmental meetings, two and three days in length, of the ISLLC framed the approach to the ISLLC Standards development (Murphy & Shipman, Forthcoming).

The ISLLC standards development commenced with an invitational National Forum of participants from state education and national associations. Key purposes, characteristics of standards and a work plan for subsequent meetings were established at this forum. Seven subsequent Consortium meetings, over approximately a two year period, supported the standards development.

Key questions, such as, "What characteristics are desired for principals of tomorrow's schools?" drove early meeting discussions. The second meeting focused on key principles and commencing the drafting of the standards. A smaller writing

team of practitioners suggested by the professional associations, academics, Consortium representatives and Chair and Director met for three days to continue drafting the standards. Small group writing sessions took place subsequently. The remaining meetings of the Consortium took on a review function with the publication of the standards in November 1996.

Other consultation processes took place alongside the central Consortium and standards writing group. Focus groups were run, conference presentations were made, and a survey was distributed to gain additional feedback on the draft standards. Key questions used in the intensive face-to-face interactions included, “Are the draft standards conclusive, comprehensive, and inclusive enough?” “What is their relationship with whatever is happening in your state or association?” Targeted distribution of the draft standards was conducted in July 1996 to, for example, all licensing offices in the fifty states and published on the CCSSO website.

The use of the ISLLC Standards varies from state to state. The standards are commonly used in state standards development, the development of assessments for initial licensure, re-licensure, preparation program improvements and guidance for employer recruitment and induction processes.

The most significant use of the standards has been the adoption, or adaptation, of the standards by nearly forty states, such as Connecticut. Connecticut’s approach to adapting the ISLLC standards involved the setting up of multiple Connecticut committees, such as a Content Advisory Committee. This committee’s responsibility was to review school leader practices and problems or tasks. Other committees were set up representing the certification area involved in the development, validation and standard setting. Connecticut’s Standards for School Leaders was published in 1999 and is used, for example, to guide state-based principal preparation and licensure.

Similarities and differences in approaches to developing standards for school leadership

The systems reflect a number of similarities and differences. Generally, the length of time to develop the standards was between one to two years. The DPA, however, took four years to develop and Western Australia conducted research over nearly a decade. Characteristic of all systems was for a lead organisation to draw together a number of other organisations or individuals with different expertise or perspectives to coordinate the consultation. In each system only a small group actually wrote the standards, although many groups had input into their development. All the systems tried to connect with stakeholders using a variety of methods, but who drove the standards development varied significantly from country to country. For example, in the Netherlands, principals drove the development of standards for the Dutch Principals Academy. In England and Scotland, the profession was engaged in the process, to a limited extent, but the Scottish Executive (in Scotland) and the Department for Education and Skills (in England) initiated and ultimately controlled the process.

Overall, the five systems reflect different approaches to writing and consulting on the standards. England, Scotland and the US emphasised using a variety of consultation processes underpinned by information gained from the review phase of the standards development process. Western Australia's approach, partly because of its funding set-up (an ARC grant) conducted their own research to drive the development of the standards. The DPA appears to fall somewhere between the previous two approaches with its iterative Delphi method to involving and engaging stakeholders (see Appendix Two). The most frequent method for consultation was some form of online communication, such as a questionnaire, online discussion or website. Interviews and focus groups were also common methods used to evaluate and monitor the standards development. Most of the standards developers attempted to connect with and draw on the work of other sets of standards (e.g. teaching) but only Scotland makes an explicit mention of this in their published Standard.

None of the countries in this review appeared to have systematic and rigorous studies of the validity of their standards along the lines, for example, that Dwyer (1994) used to validate the PRAXIS III teaching standards, or those used by the Technical Analysis Group set up by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) (Jaeger, 1998).

The Netherlands seems to be the only system that has set up an explicit procedure for the ongoing review and validation of its standards. The DPA is using the approach it developed to rewrite the Standard on an ongoing annual basis.

Comparing the scope and structure of the standards for school leadership

Once the responsible bodies have established the key groups to be involved in writing the standards and consultation, the standards developers must make early decisions about the *scope* and *structure* of the standards. Who should be encompassed by the standards? What should be included in the "domain" of standards for school leadership? What should be in, what should be left out? Delineating the scope is of central importance when deciding the nature and form of evidence to be gathered in assessing performance against the standards. All five systems, for example, decided that the one set of standards would encompass aspiring and serving principals. The ISLLC standards also encompass school district leadership roles.

As discussed in Chapter Four, content standards describe the knowledge, skills and dispositions that comprise effective school leadership. Standards writers in each of the five systems made decisions about depth, scope and organisation of the standards.

The scope of a school leader's practice has been the focus of a number of studies. Leithwood et al.'s study (2002), for example, identified 121 leadership practices

shown as necessary in dealing with accountability initiatives. These were grouped into eight categories⁵, such as “Information Collection and Decision Making”. The categories were compared against five sets of standards⁶.

“School culture” was the practice least frequently included (or implied) in the sets. Empowering teachers in decision-making featured only in the Queensland and Connecticut standards. Building a culture of teacher leadership was absent in all but Connecticut’s standards. This theme was again reflected in the category “Teachers” with respect to the leadership practice of fostering collective capacities. Leithwood and Steinbach (*Forthcoming*) claim, “Standards should reflect the distributed nature of school leadership” but evidence of what this means in practice for the leadership of schools is still evolving. Of the five standards Leithwood et al. (2002) reviewed, all but one (Connecticut) has been revised or is the process of being revised.

What follows is an overview of the architecture of the five standards we reviewed (see the Companion document for other sets of standards and guiding conceptual frameworks from Australia).

England

England’s revised National Standards for Headteachers (2004) has six key areas, that when taken together, frame the role of the headteacher. These are:

- Shaping the Future;
- Leading Learning and Teaching;
- Managing the Organisation;
- Developing Self and Working with Others;
- Securing Accountability; and
- Strengthening Community

The six organisers above expand into specific knowledge, professional qualities and actions. For example, the domain “Developing Self and Working with Others” expands into:

- *Knowledge* about, for example, strategies to promote individual and team development;

⁵ Leithwood et al.’s (2002) categories of leadership practice in accountable contexts include: Mission, Vision and Goals; School Culture; Policies and Procedures; Organisation and Resources; Teachers; Programs and Instruction; School-Community Relations and Information Collection and Decision Making.

⁶ USA ISLLC; Australia, Queensland’s Standards Framework for Leaders; England’s National Standards for Headteachers (pre-2004 version); New Zealand’s Principal Performance Management and USA Connecticut’s Professional Standards.

- *Professional Qualities*, such as, commitment to shared leadership and ability to foster an open, fair, equitable culture and manage conflict; and
- *Actions*, such as, regularly reviews their own practice, sets personal targets and takes responsibility for their own personal development.

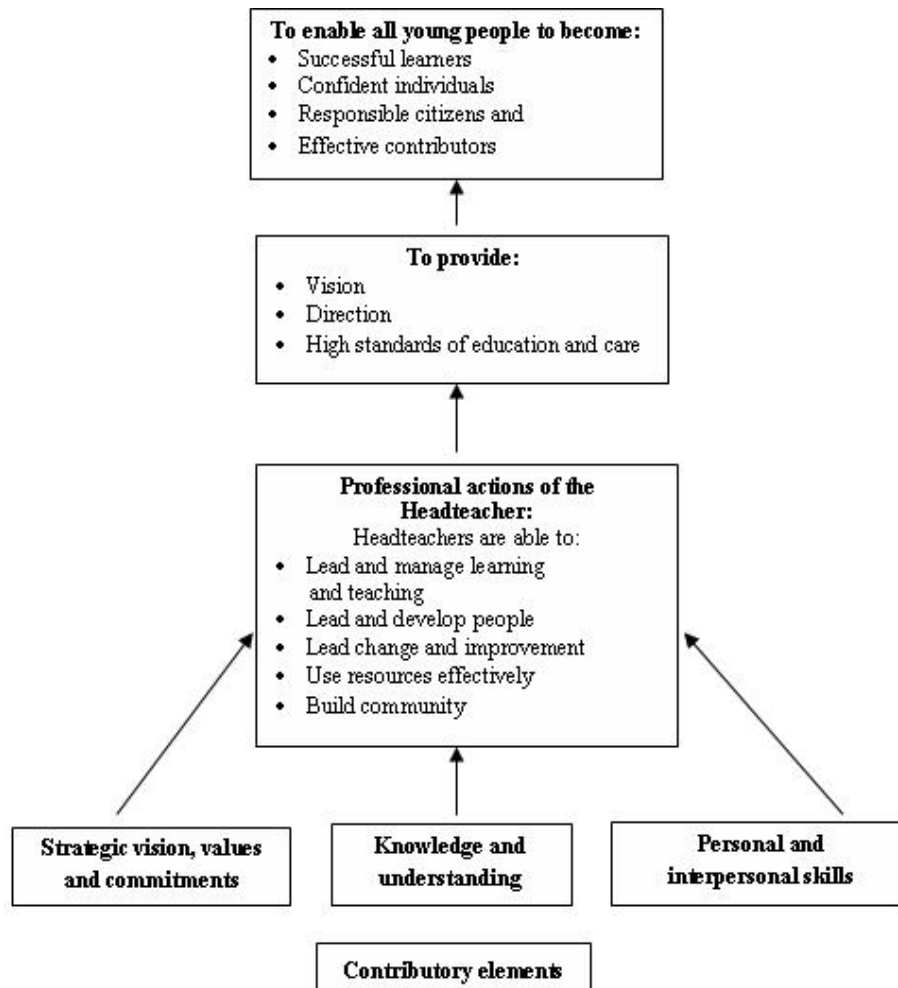
The six organisers represent the basic architecture of what competent school leaders do. In other words they represent a coherent set of organisers, not just a list of unrelated elements.

Scotland

Figure 1 summarises the Standard for Headship⁷ (consultation paper) in Scotland. The developers of the Standard have used a backward mapping approach that starts with a focus on student learning and the educational purposes of schools. The process might start with a vision of “what conditions would we see in a school that was functioning effectively and providing high quality opportunities for student learning?” The Standard works backwards from these purposes to identify the professional actions required of effective headteachers, and the roles they must play, if they are to provide vision, direction and high standards. The ‘contributory elements’ then identify the knowledge, skills, and values that would be important, presumably, in the preparation and on-going professional learning of headteachers.

⁷ The Revised Standard for Headship in Scotland has just been published. This diagram’s logic remains the same in the revised Standard but it has a 3D appearance.

Figure 1: The Standard for Headship



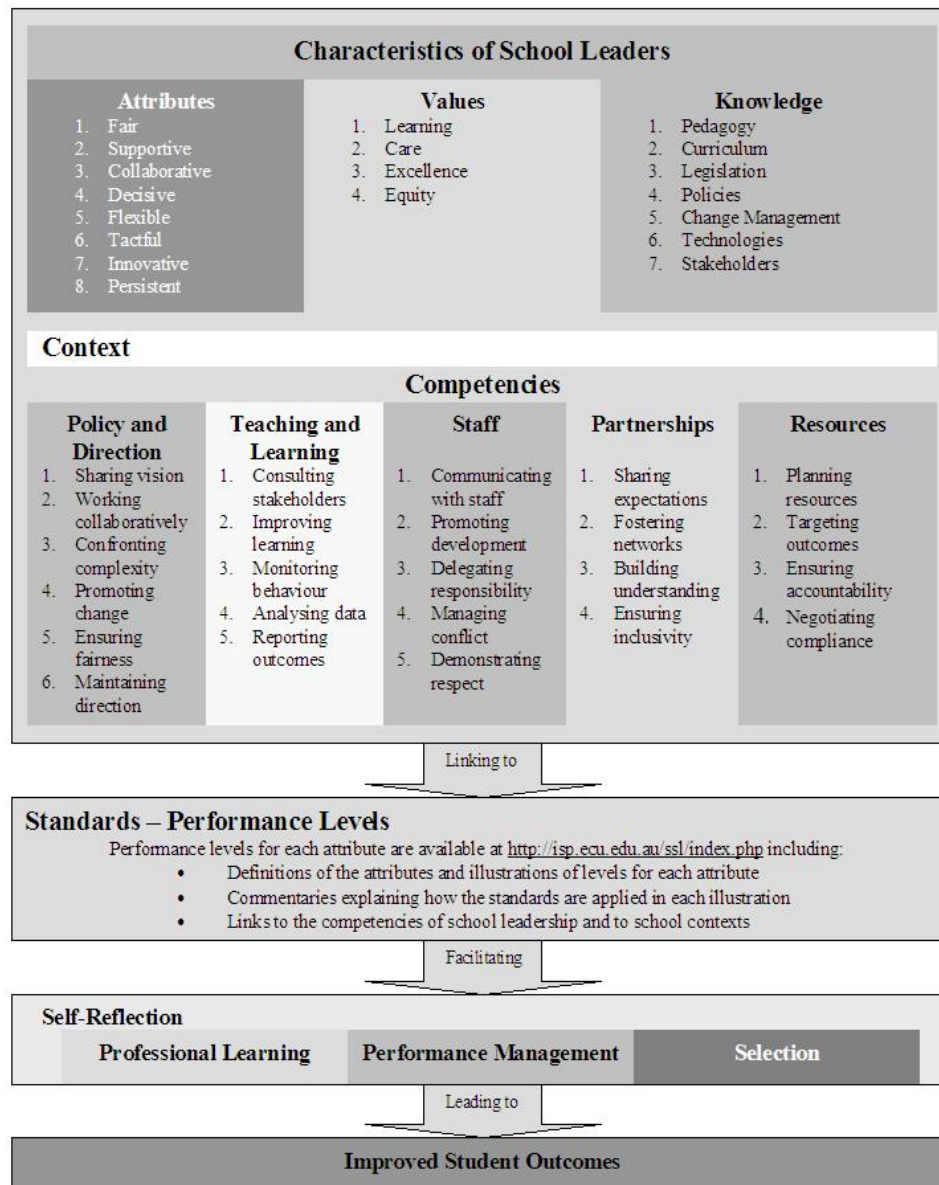
(Scottish Executive, 2005)

Western Australia

Western Australia's Leadership Framework, Figure 2 below, gives prominence to characteristics of school leaders, including attributes, values and knowledge. The five domains of school leadership, such as policy and direction, are the sites for determining the quality of performance through the eight interpersonal and moral attributes (e.g. fairness) (www.eddept.wa.edu.au/lc/standards.html, <http://isp.ecu.edu.au/ssl/index.php>). The Leadership Framework is linked directly to the Leadership Centre's Professional Learning Progression Chart (See Chapter Six). An unusual feature of the WA standards is the provision of performance levels on

each of the personal attributes for use in self-reflection, performance management and selection.

Figure 2: The Leadership Framework



The Netherlands

The DPA's Professional Standard for Educational Leaders in Primary Education (2005) lays out eight areas of competence for all principals in primary education or those who aspire to such a post:

Personal effectiveness	Organisation effectiveness
Leading yourself	Teaching and learning
Intra-personal skills	Leadership
Leading staff	Management
Interpersonal skills	Entrepreneurship

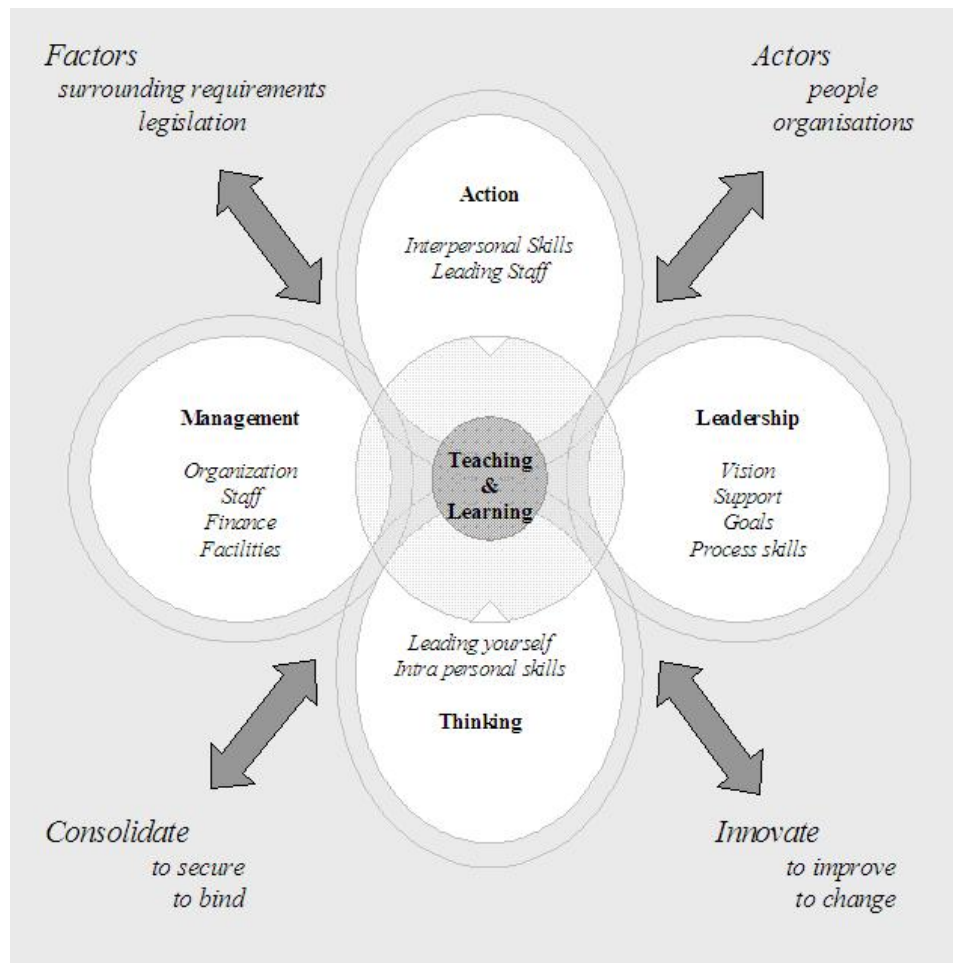
Each competence area has a brief introduction, followed by the statement, “A competent leader in primary education is able to...” This statement is expanded into professional actions; knowledge; skills and values; beliefs and attitudes – although unlike most of the other systems reviewed, the DPA does not use specific headings to delineate the areas, such as skills and values.

Within the domain “Leadership”, for example, a competent leader in primary education is able to demonstrate that they:

- actively involve all parties in the process of school development and community building by:
- Encouraging initiative and experiment,
- Working, together with pupils, team, parents, board and others, on a liveable, inspiring and meaningful community in an ideological and social sense ((Dutch Principals Academy, 2005) p.5).

These competences are also represented pictorially as interlocking circles, with “teaching and learning” at the centre (See Figure 3):

Figure 3



USA

The ISLLC Standards are organised into six areas, with each standard beginning with the phrase **“A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by:**

1. facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community
2. advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning
3. ensuring management of the organisation, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment
4. collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilising community resources
5. acting with integrity, fairness and in an ethical manner
6. understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal and cultural context

Each ISLLC standard is then expanded into knowledge; dispositions and performances. For example, standard three, “ensuring management of the organisation, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment,” expands into:

- *Knowledge: The administrator has knowledge and understanding of, for example:*
Theories and models of organisations and the principles of organisational development
- *Dispositions: The administrator believes in, values, and is committed to, for example:*
Trusting people and their judgements
- *Performances: The administrator facilitates processes and engages in activities ensuring that, for example:*
Knowledge of learning, teaching, and student development is used to inform management decisions.

Connecticut adapted the above ISLLC *Standards for School Leaders* for its own schools’ contexts. Connecticut’s standards writers finished with twelve standards expanded in a similar way to ISLLC’s standards into knowledge and skills; dispositions and performances. The standards are organised under headings, such as, “The Teaching Process” and each standard commences with the statement, **“The school leader...”**

Critical analysis

The value of standards for school leadership

All five countries appear to be confident about the importance of leadership to student learning and the value of writing standards that identify the basic core of successful leadership practices. More rigorous attention is being given to research on effective leadership practices in writing standards. School leaders have demonstrated a clear capacity to write challenging standards for their work, when given the opportunity (e.g. the DPA in the Netherlands).

Guiding conception of school leadership

What may have “counted” for quality school leadership in the past cannot be assumed valid for present-day or future school leadership. Standards developers from England, Queensland, New Zealand and a number of others stated this was a key motivation for revising existing sets of leadership standards. However, few standards developers made explicit the research base underlying their standards, as may be found in teaching standards, such as Dwyer (1994). This is not easy, as Mulford (2005b) points out, while there is an expanding number of empirical studies about school leadership strategies, questions remain about their relationship to student learning outcomes (see Chapter Three).

Notable shifts in guiding conceptions of leadership can be traced from earlier sets of standards to more recent or adapted sets. However, it is rare to find a set of school leadership standards that has an explicit clear guiding conception of what leadership is, and distinguishing this from areas of school functioning within which leadership may be exercised. Fullan’s (2003) concept of leadership, for example, as mobilising effort to improve things, is a clear conception of leadership. Leadership in this sense can be applied to many areas of school operation such as “Teaching and Learning” and “Resources”. The latter are not leadership standards in themselves. They are, more correctly, areas of responsibility in schools, or areas of school functioning, not standards of practice, even though they are often listed as such standards.

Commonality in scope

The five countries represent different contexts, yet the standards cover similar territory. There is a striking similarity in the core components of the five standards across different country contexts (and other standards we reviewed), although the precise wording may differ (e.g. “Shaping the Future” versus “Setting Directions”; “Lead and Manage Learning” versus “Leading Teaching and Learning”). Leithwood’s three research-based categories of school leadership practice (see Chapters Three and Four) – setting directions, developing people and re-designing the organisation could be mapped over the five systems we reviewed.

Recent standards avoid the long lists of competencies that characterised some sets of standards in the past. Notable in four of the five systems (and many others) is the small number of top-level organisers, such as “Shaping the future”. In fact, school leader standards appear to be becoming increasingly parsimonious as they seek to isolate the unique features of school leaders’ work that links, even if indirectly, to better learning outcomes (Mulford, 2005b). This trend away from identifying every leadership practice is in keeping with the purpose of profession-wide standards to identify what is valued as essential to school leadership (See Chapter Four). The exception is Connecticut. It has twelve standards, which is double the number of the ISLLC standards.

Writing and developing standards

Writing standards is more complex than it appears, especially if the standards are to be useful and valid for purposes such as professional preparation and development and professional certification. The process requires a stable, core, expert writing group, including academics and a professional writer. The approach used to develop standards in WA is unlikely to push the boundaries on conceptualising leadership without more avenues for encompassing findings from rigorous research in the writing process. By relying heavily on ratings by practitioners of cases of current practice, it seems an inherently conservative approach to identifying effective practice. Equally though, some have criticised England’s standards because they appear to place more emphasis on what school leaders *should* be doing, which may not necessarily be what they actually *can* do under current conditions or in particular contexts. This tension needs to be at the forefront in the writing process and it raises issues to do with how standards developers should proceed with the consultation process.

Consulting on the standards for school leadership

The standards writing process needs to include several consultation cycles and a systematic approach to validation of the standards by gathering data about the quality of the standards from a range of groups including profession associations and unions, governments and other employing authorities and researchers. Valuable standards for writing standards, such as those developed by Leithwood and Steinbach, are now available as well as those provided in Chapter Four.

Validating the standards for school leadership

Broad-based consultation is one way to validate the standards for school leadership. Strictly speaking though, validation needs to be done through research and expertise – not through the weight of popular opinion or social dominance. Procedures for validating the standards across the five systems reflected similarities, such as, use of focus groups but significant differences in how the processes were used can perhaps, in part, be traced back to the purposes and guiding principles and type of responsible

body undertaking the development. The DPA, for example, was the only fully-fledged independent professional body driving the standards development.

Developing a standards guided system

Most of the standards reviewed are not complete, in the sense of being explicit, not only about the *content* of the standards, but also about indicating the *setting* of standards. All the systems, except WA, defined the standards through the domains where leadership was to be exercised, such as, “Managing the organisation” but were less clear about distinguishing the level of performance that might be expected from school leaders. While WA incorporates the domains or duty areas of school leaders, as part of its overall leadership framework, it appears to privilege “performance” on the personal attributes in its standards over evidence of performance in the competency areas.

Summary

As an overall observation, it is interesting how the work of school leaders can be represented in such a variety of ways, even though, underneath, the standards cover similar territory. Shifts in guiding conceptions of school leadership can be traced from earlier to more recent sets of standards (see also Chapter Three). However, it is not so easy to trace an explicit research base that has informed the development of the standards. Nor are all sets of standards we reviewed explicit in the guiding conception(s) that underpin the school leadership standards. Transparency is an area that future standards developers could sharpen up.

Long lists of competencies and job descriptions appear to be a thing of the past in the sets of standards we reviewed. Far fewer top-level organisers are being used as developers try to isolate the unique features of school leaders’ work. How standards developers set about writing, developing, consulting and validating the standards highlighted a number of similarities and points of difference. For example, all systems we reviewed set up a dedicated group to write the standards, but there were vast differences between the systems in the composition of the writing group and processes that linked this group to other groups.

Standards developers in WA and Connecticut seemed to be the only groups, out of the five reviewed, that had begun to work on *setting* standards and identifying the level of performance that was expected from a school leader that met the standard. Other sets of standards seemed to concentrate on the content of the standards. As highlighted in Chapter Four, content, methods of assessment and levels of performance are necessary for a complete set of standards.

As identified early in this chapter, the five sets of standards reflect a number of common purposes of standards for school leadership. One of these purposes is to use the standards to guide professional learning and assessment. The next chapter examines the types of infrastructure that each system puts in place for teachers, principals and other school leaders to guide their professional learning to attain the standards.

Chapter Six: Linking standards for school leadership to professional learning

While the previous chapter reviewed standards for school leaders in each system, this chapter focuses on the infrastructure that each system establishes to assist and support school leaders as they select and undertake professional learning to help them move toward the standards.

As pointed out in Chapter Two, our literature review focused on countries where standards for school leadership were used as part of a system for promoting professional learning and providing recognition for school leaders who attained the standards, such as certification. Each system was using their standards to develop a clearer direction for continuous professional learning for teachers and school leaders, to encourage and promote participation in learning at all levels of leadership, and to link leadership preparation and on-going development to research on effective leadership practices and improved student learning outcomes.

Most countries included in this review indicated a need to overhaul structures and programs for the preparation of school leaders in the face of changing expectations of school leaders and problems with recruitment and retention. As mentioned earlier, the OECD has initiated a project on improving leadership in schools.

Major recent reviews in the USA have found serious inadequacies in the capacity of current state licensure systems to ensure principals are well prepared (Adams & Copland, 2005). Levine (2005) documents the degeneration that has taken place, over the past forty years, in the traditional university-based masters and doctoral programs path for preparing school principals and educational administrators. The literature indicates increasing interest in new systems, guided by profession-defined standards, for professional preparation and development for school leaders. It also cautions that standards need to keep up with research on effective leadership practices (Davis et al., 2005).

These are some of the questions that guided our review of the five systems:

- How is professional learning organised to assist prospective or established school leaders to attain the standards?
- Who are the providers?
- How are the activities or programs funded?
- How do the activities or programs engage school leaders in effective professional learning?

A professional learning system infrastructure

A key component of any professional standards and certification system is the infrastructure created to support standards-based professional learning. A

professional learning system infrastructure is an acknowledgement that professional development is more than keeping up with and implementing policy changes and reforms of governments and employing authorities. There is a mutual and shared responsibility between the profession and employers.

The infrastructure can include a wide variety of providers and activities. In most countries, there is a marked shift from universities being the dominant provider of educational administration programs to partnerships between employing authorities, professional associations and universities. This has given rise to the formation of different relationships for standards-based professional learning.

Most professions develop an infrastructure to support continuing professional learning to assist their members to develop high standards of practice. Development is not an “event”; it has to be achieved through many types of professional learning from courses to personal reading. And, in an important sense, it is a personal quest to attain the attributes and capabilities embodied in the standards. We were interested therefore, in where the balance of responsibility for professional development rested in each system reviewed. Governments and employing authorities undoubtedly have a responsibility for ensuring principals are well prepared and encouraged to continue their professional development. Members of a profession also have a responsibility to ensure they are developing to and maintaining professional standards.

Professional learning is where standards can come to life. Basic questions come to the fore. “What does meeting this particular standard mean in my school context?” “How might I demonstrate that my practice is meeting this standard?” Standards place the person in a more active role in relation to planning their own professional learning. One of the major concerns with traditional course-based modes of professional learning has been the essentially passive role in which they place the learner (Davis et al., 2005). The professional development literature for teachers has been advocating for many years a move from old course-based ways of thinking about professional learning to making the workplace and other forms of collegial interaction one of the major sites for professional learning. We were interested in the extent to which each system reviewed had the capacity to engage prospective and established school leaders in quality professional learning that linked, at least indirectly, to student learning outcomes.

Features of a quality professional learning infrastructure

What counts as quality school leadership in the 21st century has also forced providers of professional learning to reconsider what counts as quality professional leadership learning. One way to research, develop and evaluate the professional learning offered by different providers is through examining the content, methods and structure features of the PD (Davis et al., 2005). Collectively, these three features set out the guiding principles for professional learning.

Davis et al's (2005) review of research about leadership preparation identified key features of effective program design. Space precludes including full descriptions of each of these features, but in summary, these were the features most frequently identified in the literature as being essential to the development of effective school leaders:

Box 3 Content – The content of Principal preparation and professional development programs should be:

Research-based

Programs should include knowledge that will allow school leaders to better promote successful teaching and learning ... knowledge about collaborative decision-making strategies, distributed leadership practices, a culture of collegiality and community, processes for organisational change and renewal, and the development of management competence in the analysis and use of data and instructional technologies to guide school improvement activities. (p. 9)

and have:

Curriculum coherence

A well-defined and coherent program is one that links goals, learning activities, and candidate assessments around a set of shared values, beliefs, and knowledge about effective administrative practice. Highly coherent programs offer a logical, often sequential array of coursework, learning activities, and program structures that links theory and practice and are framed around the principles of adult learning theory. The learning activities provide a scaffold on which new self-directed knowledge is constructed, foster deep self-reflection, link past experiences with newly acquired knowledge, are problem- rather than subject-centred, and offer multiple venues for applying new knowledge in practical settings. (p. 9)

Methods – Program content should be delivered through a variety of methods to best meet the needs of adult learners and to allow principals or aspiring principals to apply the curricular content in authentic settings. This may be done through:

- *Field-based internships* – "...adults learn best when exposed to situations requiring the application of acquired skills, knowledge, and problem-solving strategies within authentic settings, and when guided by critical self-reflection". (p. 10)
- *Problem-based learning* – effective preparation programs feature instructional activities and assessments that focus on problems of practice and stimulate effective problem-solving and reflection.
- *Cohort groups* – adult learning is best accomplished when it is part of a socially cohesive activity structure that emphasises shared authority for learning, opportunities for collaboration, and teamwork in practice-oriented situations. (p. 10)

- **Mentors** – The primary role of the mentor is to guide the learner in his or her search for strategies to resolve dilemmas, to boost self-confidence, and to construct a broad repertoire of leadership skills through modeling, coaching, gradually removing support as the mentee's competence increases, questioning and probing to promote self-reflection and problem solving skills, and providing feedback and counsel. (p.10)

Structure – Principal preparation and professional development programs should reflect a variety of structures, collaborations, and institutional arrangements. The need for more active modes of learning based on performance has led to increased collaboration between professional associations, employers, schools and universities as equal partners in the design, implementation, and assessment of principal preparation programs. (p. 10).

The authors point out that there is little research evidence yet as to how specific program components affect leadership performance on the job or student learning outcomes. Self-reports from candidates, and in the case of preparation programs, the candidates' principals, tend to characterise many empirical studies (Bush & Glover, 2005; Davis et al., 2005; Leithwood & Levin, 2004; Menter, Mahoney, & Hextall, 2004; Watson, 2005; Wong, 2004). Weaknesses in research design more generally, such as variables in studies not being defined clearly and evidence collected not being complex enough to reflect the realities of school life, have not helped with accumulating a robust knowledge base (Mulford & Silins, 2005).

But the emphasis on content, as defined by Davis et al (2005), is certainly consistent with research on the characteristics of effective PD programs for teachers – programs that have been shown to link to improved outcomes for students (Hawley & Valli, 1999). Also noteworthy is the emphasis on active modes of learning through taking on authentic tasks, a point also made in Chapter Four about how portfolio tasks for certification are designed to engage school leaders in active modes of learning.

In Australia, jurisdictions have developed professional learning programs that reflect many of the key features of quality professional learning (see Appendix Five for other examples from Education Departments and professional associations). However, for most teachers, the professional learning pathways to school leadership are still not very systematic or predictable.

We now review the infrastructure for professional learning for each of the five systems in this review in the light of the above features of quality professional learning. The crucial question is the way in which the system ensures there are strong links between the standards and the professional learning.

Organisation of professional learning for prospective and established school leaders

Professional learning for prospective and established school leaders is clearly a “hot topic” of educational debate and research interest. This section provides an overview of how professional learning for school leaders is organised in the five systems we reviewed.

USA

It is unwise, if not impossible, to generalise about the United States in any aspect, including the preparation of school leaders. Fortunately, several authoritative and comprehensive reviews of school leader preparation have been published recently (Adams & Copland, 2005; Davis et al., 2005; Elmore, 2000; Levine, 2005; Murphy, 2005). These studies do give an overview of the different models in the United States.

The USA is unique in that the preparation and development of school leaders has traditionally been the preserve of education schools in universities. University-based educational administration masters and doctoral programs, linked to state licensure requirements, have been the main form of training since World War II. Licensing for school administrators was introduced earlier, but after the war, states gave the universities the tasks of recruitment, designing and teaching the curriculum and assuring the quality of graduates.

This system served the needs of universities, states, school systems and aspiring leaders well for some years, but has fallen into serious disrepute since the 1980s (Levine, 2005). As Levine noted:

The findings of this report were very disappointing. Collectively, educational administration programs are the weakest of all the programs in the nation's education schools. (p. 13)

Levine's (2005) report on the preparation of school leaders in the USA focused on university programs. His report was highly critical of the content, method of delivery and the absence of research on what value these programs added to the quality of performance in schools. He highlighted a number of past and current alternative programs and providers, such as Chicago's Leadership Initiative for Transformation (LIFT) program that targets different administrator career stages and is sponsored by a form of consortium – a mixture of government education, principal association and university partners. The program's content is practical in focus, covering areas such as the establishment and development of mentoring relationships, and is aligned with standards.

Some of the strongest critics have described the USA system as a “cartel” and have called for the cartel to be broken by allowing school districts to determine the

training needs of their leaders and to obtain that training from the provider of their choice. In fact, in recent years states and school districts have increasingly bypassed this system, creating their own alternative routes to leadership and administration careers.

Levine's report highlighted that leadership preparation and ongoing development were no longer the monopoly of universities in the USA. A new market has been created for other forms of providers of professional learning, and this market has an emphasis on workplace learning and career stage specific knowledge and skills. While generally damning in his critique of the university provision, Levine also noted that neither the university nor the new providers' approach was complete: "The programs of new providers are long on practice and short on theory, and the university-based programs are just the opposite" (p. 52).

Reflecting this shift on possible providers, the Council of Chief State School Officers, formed a consortium of states in the early 1990s. This consortium was interested in developing standards to guide school leader programs, the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC). Professional associations as well as academics played a major role in the development of these standards. Murphy (2005) provides a comprehensive review of the ISLLC work, describing it as a major effort to "rebuild the foundations of school administration" (p.154). The main ISLLC objective was to provide a service to states in the Consortium who were revising their arrangements for leadership preparation and licensure. More than forty states have adopted the ISLLC standards into their (compulsory) licensure arrangements. Many states, like Connecticut, now use the ISLLC standards as the framework for their licensure criteria.

Connecticut's State Board of Education is the governing body of the Connecticut State Department of Education in the United States. The Board has responsibility for the standards and licensing assessments as the framework for the preparation, certification and evaluation of principals in the state.

Connecticut's sixteen universities have a significant role in the professional development and certification of principals, but for the last fifteen years their role has been guided by the state's emphasis on two key areas of infrastructure. One area is policy alignment around the quality of teaching and the second area is consistent funding for activities, such as professional development (Wilson, Darling-Hammond, & Berry, 2001).

Professional development is offered by a variety of state, regional and district-based providers. The school leaders play a more active role in the infrastructure, by setting directions that provide support for their own learning. Connecticut's State Board of Education approves the programs offered for certification.

The University of Connecticut is one of five case studies within the Wallace Foundation's project "School Leadership Study: Developing Successful Principals" (Davis et al., 2005) and is one of many providers, such as the Connecticut Principals'

Centre of programs for professionals who aspire to positions in school leadership in Connecticut. Characteristic of the University of Connecticut program is the use of professional standards to inform the continuum of professional development from initial teacher licensing to advanced teaching standards and administrator preparation. The new leadership standards emphasise the centrality of expertise about teaching in the development of school leaders.

Teachers are strongly encouraged to apply for NBPTS certification, which includes aspects of teacher leadership and provides a valuable stepping stone to wider leadership roles. Vital parts of the University of Connecticut program are a two-year internship equating to ninety hours of on-site/off-site activities that are designed to help candidates develop administrator proficiency as outlined by the NCATE standards. Candidates are supported during this period by a highly regarded principal as mentor. Another vital part of the program is keeping the same cohort of candidates together throughout the two years. Thus, learning in the program is both an individual and group experience. Conceptual and practical components frame the content of the program, such as adult learning theory, which emphasises experiential learning and interviewing for positions in school leadership. Portfolio entries are the main means by which candidates gather evidence to show they have met the Standards.

England

Professional learning for school leaders in England is the responsibility of the National College for School Leadership, a freestanding government agency that provides a national focus to leadership development and research. Many of the NCSL programs are delivered locally throughout England's nine geographical regions. The NCSL prepares detailed specifications for key professional development programs and calls for tenders from service providers to provide those programs. Together, the service providers cover the whole of England. The programs are designed to assist aspiring and established headteachers to meet the National Standards for Headteachers (see Chapter Five). The NCSL is generously funded, as part of a national educational strategy, and it plays a pivotal role in deciding the nature and provision of professional learning.

The key building blocks for the NCSL activity include:

- National Standards for Headteachers (and some other groups of leaders);
- Department for Education and Skills' (DfES) strategy outline for the Continuing Professional Development of teachers;
- National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH);
- Two key national programs, developed by the NCSL: The Headteachers' Leadership and Management Program (Headlamp) and the Leadership Program for Serving Headteachers; and

- Other leadership and management programs, offered by Local Education Authorities, Diocesan Boards, professional associations, universities and private sector companies.

The purposes of this standards-guided learning system for school leaders are closely geared to the policies of the national government and the need for more eligible headteachers. Some have called them “designer” standards (Gronn, 2003). This system is not one whose direction is largely in the hands of the profession (defined as practising headteachers and their associations) but headteachers are certainly involved in the operation of the system at most levels.

Along with the NCSL’s inception in 2000 came the establishment of a think tank comprised of serving headteachers, members from the NCSL’s Governing Council and other experts in leadership development from public and private sectors. The explicit purpose of the think tank was to develop a conceptual framework for the review of leadership programs and any future leadership programs. An outcome of this group’s work was the NCSL five-stage Leadership Development Framework:

- **Emergent** – teachers taking on their first management responsibilities;
- **Established** – heads of faculty, assistant and deputy heads who do not intend to pursue headship;
- **Entry to headship** – those who are actively preparing for headship;
- **Advanced** – experienced school leaders looking to refresh and update their skills; and
- **Consultant** – able and experienced leaders who are ready to take on training or a mentoring role.

The NCSL has developed a spectrum of programs to match a school leader’s career progression from aspirant to mentor/consultant. Ten propositions developed by the think tank reflect the values (e.g. embrace the distinctive and individual context of the school), nature (e.g. are instructionally focused) and development of school leadership (e.g. through experiential and innovative methodologies). The NCSL programs are based on these ten propositions.

The NCSL leads the implementation of three key leadership programs roughly matched to these five stages:

- **National Professional Qualifications for Headship (NPQH)** for aspiring heads (one year program – mandatory – seven providers) that involves individual needs assessment, and assessment of candidates for headship against the National Standards;
- **Headteacher Leadership and Management Program** (Headlamp) replaced now by the **Headteacher Induction Program (HIP)**. Headlamp supports the induction of newly appointed heads. Heads receive a grant of ~\$6500 to purchase the training they need; and

- **Leadership Program for Serving Headteachers (LPSH)** for those who have been in post for three or more years – the focus is on the job requirements of a head, the head's personal characteristics, different leadership styles, school improvement and leadership effectiveness. The program is based on a residential workshop exploring leadership style and its impact on the school.

The NCSL National Standards for Headteachers guide the compulsory National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) program. Over 12,000 headteachers and aspiring headteachers have taken the new National Professional Qualification for Headship (DfES, 2004). The NPQH is comprised of three stages: an "Access Stage" involving, for example, four study modules and completion of a reflective learning journal, a "Development Stage", covering the key areas of the National Standards for Headteachers and a "Final Stage", involving a 48 hour residential program, skills assessment and award of the NPQH. Overall, a candidate may take up to two years to complete the program. Box 4 below provides an example of the content areas for one of the NPQH development stage modules. The development stage content builds directly on the learning from the previous "Access stage" but sets out to take a candidate's understanding to a more strategic level of school leadership.

Box 4: Module from NCSL's NPQH program for aspiring headteachers

Module 2: Strategic Leadership of Learning and Teaching

- Unit 1: Understanding the characteristics of good teaching and effective teaching
- Unit 2: Securing good teaching and effective learning
- Unit 3: Meeting the needs of all pupils
- Unit 4: School self-review

Other programs have also been developed or piloted, such as Leading from the Middle (for small groups of, for example, heads of department) and The Established Leaders Program (for deputy or assistant headteachers who have decided not to seek a headteacher post). Space precludes a full description of the infrastructure for standards-guided professional learning by the NCSL. Suffice to say, the programs are geared to the work of practising leaders and combine a wide range of active modes for learning, including problem solving, experiential, and field-based learning. The NCSL also plays a significant professional learning role in supplying school leaders with up to date and practical research-based reports and in conducting research on emerging issues and current problems facing school leaders.

Scotland

Professional learning provision for school leaders in Scotland is basically an open market. Prospective and established principals can seek out universities, private sector companies, local authorities and consortia arrangements as sources of professional development. A national priority to focus on the development of the skills of teachers has secured significant funding to support teachers, headteachers and other school leaders' professional development. Most of this funding has been provided from the Scottish Executive Education Department (SEED) to the thirty-two Local Authorities across Scotland, with the majority of the funding being devolved directly to schools.

Within this market, the Scottish Executive plays a key role in setting the national direction and guidance for professional learning. The publication of *A Teaching Profession for the 21st Century* marked a formal agreement between the Scottish Executive, education authorities and the teacher representatives for a renewed emphasis on the continuing professional development of teachers, principals and other school leaders. This agreement resulted in the development of the *Continuing Professional Development for Educational Leaders* – a continuum framework based on the professional action that underpins the *Standard for Chartered Teacher* and the *Standard for Headship in Scotland*. The framework was developed to support effective professional action in different widening spheres of educational leadership:

- **Project Leadership:** Aimed at early career teachers who might be responsible for leading a small-scale project within a school, in areas such as curriculum or student learning support;
- **Team Leadership:** Aimed at current or aspiring faculty heads that have whole-school responsibility in leading staff groups;
- **School Leadership:** Aimed at those who seek responsibility for leadership across a school, and/or are seeking to become a member of the senior leadership team in the school. The achievement of the *Standard for Headship* sits within this level; and
- **Strategic Leadership:** Aimed at those currently leading schools or strategic initiatives at an Authority level.

The CPD Framework is used to support the planning and evaluation of leadership development provision of those offering and commissioning PD activities. Under each sphere, commitments and abilities based on the standards are listed as broad statements. Within the "School Leadership" sphere there are statements such as, "A school leader develops and communicates strategic direction that inspires and motivates the whole school" (Scottish Executive, 2003, p.13). A newly appointed principal, aspiring principal or PD provider can use the statements to guide their selection or provision of PD.

Across the thirty-two Authorities in Scotland, there is no consistent approach to how continuing professional development is structured or supported. SEED oversees the day-to-day running of the Authorities. Edinburgh is one Authority in Scotland. It provides an example of how the standards-based CPD Framework is being used to guide local professional learning planning and provision. McEntyre's (2005) report to the NSW Department of Education and Training noted that Edinburgh's induction programs for newly appointed headteachers were spoken of highly and took into account a continuum of support, over the first five years of appointment. Box 5 gives an overview of the Edinburgh Authority's professional learning infrastructure

Box 5: Professional Learning Infrastructure of the Edinburgh Authority

Edinburgh's Professional Development Framework (2004) is for educational leaders in promoted posts in educational establishments and in the Education Department. It is expected that all educational leaders will undertake the second strand. The Framework endorses and builds on the national CPD Framework and is organised into three strands:

Strand 1: Induction into Leadership of Learning and Teaching

A two year commitment by participants prior to embarking on the next strand.

Strand 2: Individual Strategic Leadership of Learning and Teaching

A five year rolling program focused on renewal of educational leadership learning. Individuals select and manage their own learning program around five topic areas, such as, "Management and Leadership".

Several programs are offered in each of the above strands, with each program pitched at developing different types of educational leaders and teams. A heavy emphasis on structured mentoring, coaching and shadowing characterise these programs. Edinburgh Education Department provides time release and funds the program from the devolved CPD budget. Participants use their own nationally agreed 35-hour CPD time to write up their reflections from the shadowing experiences.

Strand 3: Collegiate Strategic Leadership of Learning and Teaching – Planning for the implementation of a City of Edinburgh annual strategic view on a major educational topic is underway. The Education Department Senior Management Team in consultation with headteachers would set the annual focus. This strand would be open to deputy headteachers, headteachers and Education Department Officers. An expected outcome from the process is the collaborative development of a new or revised policy.

City of Edinburgh courses are used by individuals to help prepare them for external qualifications, such as the Scottish Qualification for Headship, and applications for promoted posts.

Across Scotland, individuals or leadership teams may participate, as in the Edinburgh example, in a variety of professional learning pitched at different levels of experience and posts. The Scottish Qualification for Headship (SQH) is the only national program for headship. The program is laid out for other providers to follow. The program represents one route, within Scotland's professional learning infrastructure, to becoming a headteacher.

Universities hold a firm place in the development and delivery of principal preparation and ongoing development, but in the case of the SQH, universities worked in collaboration with practitioners and education authorities to develop and deliver the pilot program. Largely, this arrangement evolved because of the different

blends of learning required in the SQH, such as field-based *and* course-based requirements.

The Scottish Executive sought bids from University led consortia to deliver the SQH. Three consortia deliver the SQH to aspiring principals. Funds are available from the CPD budget for a limited number of candidates in each Local Authority to undertake the SQH. Candidates are selected by their employer and then register with one of the five approved universities to undertake the SQH. Plans for the SQH to become a mandatory qualification for headship in 2005 have not, to date, been implemented. McEntyre's (2005) report cited a number of reasons for this lack of implementation, the major one being insufficient numbers achieving the qualification to fill the current headteacher vacancies in Scotland.

Other infrastructure developments in Scotland include the establishment of a Leadership Centre. The Scottish Executive also plans to set up a system for capturing feedback about professional learning offerings, which includes a judgement about value for money, to assist teachers and principals in their selection of PD activities.

Western Australia Leadership Centre

The Leadership Centre in Western Australia targets government schools and exists alongside other professional learning providers in the Catholic and independent sectors, state-based professional associations, universities and private sector. The broad strategic aims of the Centre are to:

- Develop a contemporary understanding for the profession of school leadership;
- Raise the professional standards and standing of school leadership; and
- Provide opportunities for professional growth and development for Government school leaders.

While the Centre was set up by the WA Department of Education and Training, its focus is more on developing leadership potential rather than on operational management. In this sense, the Centre sets out to build on and complement employer-based school leadership requirements.

The Leadership Centre (See Appendix Three) has developed a draft Leadership Centre Professional Learning Progression Chart that presents three career-phase programs for aspiring, newly appointed, developing and experienced principals. Presently, the greatest energy and resources have gone into the introductory career-phase program – an emphasis fuelled by earlier research in WA, which showed an urgent need to support principal induction, particularly for rural principal appointments, and the lack of planned induction processes offered by districts (Wren & Watterson, 2003).

Each program has course and field-based requirements and is accompanied by certification and post-graduate credits with the four universities in Western Australia. Candidates seeking university credits for completed Leadership Centre modules must negotiate the conditions for this recognition with the university. Typically, this requires candidates to enrol with the university and to provide evidence that they have applied their learning in an educational environment through a reflective journal or professional portfolio.

The Leadership Centre's programs are the:

- **Introductory School Leadership Program:** The Centre runs five modules for aspirant principals, such as “school accountability and planning” and “leading curriculum”, for six days during each school-term break. The modules are organised so that aspirants can choose to attend one or more blocks of the program in a school holiday period. A trained facilitator, usually an experienced and capable school leader, and a content expert deliver each module. Districts can seek approval from the Leadership Centre to deliver the modules.

Completion of each module helps participants gather evidence against more than one competency area from the Leadership Framework. For example, by completing “leading curriculum” a candidate should be able to gather evidence against the “policy and direction” and “teaching and learning” areas of the Leadership Framework. Aspirants are recognised with a “Certificate of School Management”. See Box 6 for an example of key understandings and outcomes, and topics from one of the introductory modules.

- **Formative School Leadership Program:** Still under development, the program is organised around the five competency areas of the Leadership Framework (see Chapter Five). The performance level standards within the Framework are used to assess whether the standards have been met. Modules might involve one day to a number of days over a school term. Other mechanisms, such as mentoring and 360 degree self-reflection supports, are also a feature of this program. Principals are recognised with a “Certificate of School Leadership”.
- **Executive School Leadership Program:** This program is yet to be developed. The Director General or appointee would select school leaders who demonstrate potential leadership at a higher level.

Box 6: Western Australia's Leadership Centre – Introductory School Leadership Program

Module Example: School Planning and Accountability

Summary of key understandings and outcomes:

On completion of this module participants should be able to:

- Recognise the breadth and significance of the attributes and responsibilities of a school leader
- Understand the policies, purpose and interrelationship of accountability and school planning
- Understand how the planning cycle operates and the requirements and choices of planning, reporting and review
- Identify, source and understand key tools available to support the planning cycle.

Module topics:

- Your appointment and role
- Leadership attributes and planning
- Accountability – some fundamentals
- The planning cycle
- Self assessments and reviews
- The school report
- The Director's review
- Reflecting and planning

From the 770 government schools, approximately 2,900 school leaders have participated in these programs, with nearly half that number undertaking the Introductory School Leadership. Presently, participation in the program modules is voluntary. Work is underway to investigate the potential to deliver modules in a self-paced on-line mode.

Netherlands

Central government, the provincial and municipal government authorities and the competent authorities (known as *bevoegd gezag*) divide the responsibility for education in the Netherlands (Eurydice, 1996, <http://www.eurydice.org>). The government does not regulate or control professional development.

Schools receive an annual budget, determined by the number of staff members, for the continuous professional development (CPD) of teachers, principals and other school leaders. Ten per cent (~169 hours) of time annually is allocated and funded from the CPD budget for individuals to undertake professional development – this is not done in their own time.

Huber's (Huber, 2003) comparison of principal preparation and ongoing development in fifteen countries characterised the Netherlands as substantially devolved and entrepreneurial when it comes to approaches to school leader development. This means there is a broad variety of optional preparatory and ongoing professional development opportunities by different providers, such as universities, Advisory Boards and school leadership associations. The Dutch Principal Academy (DPA) is an example of an independent non-government professional body for primary leaders in education.

Established by the former Minister of Education in 2000, the DPA represents a recent educational reform in the development and use of standards for school leadership. The DPA reports that it works closely with employee, employer and professional groups and is recognised by all these groups as a quality assurance body for principal competence in primary education. The DPA's website highlights that the DPA is part of the professional learning infrastructure in the Netherlands to "stimulate, guard and promote professional quality and expertise of management in primary education" (<http://www.nsanederland.nl>). This goal encompasses specific tasks for the DPA. These tasks include:

- developing a professional standard;
- initiating research into professional quality;
- keeping a register of competent certified leaders in primary education;
- accrediting provider PD offerings (whether these be programs and/or CPD tools); and
- developing the starter qualifications for the profession.

The DPA register is, in principle, open to all appointed middle, school and superintendent leaders in primary education, but principals occupy a central focus for the DPA's activities. Annual registration costs 105 Euro and typically, this is paid out of the school's CPD budget. Once registered, and for the life of the registration, principals carry the copyrighted title of Registered Principal (RDO) after their names. This is a mark of quality assurance to employers, the public and others in the profession that this principal has undergone specific activities in accordance with the DPA Standard. Payment of the registration fee, in this sense, is only the first step towards being a fully registered⁸ DPA principal.

Once registered, a principal has access to the DPA's Continuous Professional Development Framework. The framework guides and supports a principal to meet the DPA Standard. One component of the framework is a list of registration and re-registration criteria, such as evidence of participating in 100 hours of professional

⁸ The DPA seems to use the term "registered", in the case of RDO Principal, to mean a certified individual.

development annually⁹ and evidence of undertaking a two-year starter qualification program. Other components include, guiding principles for the profession, and training and continuous development opportunities. The DPA Standard underpins and drives each of the framework components.

Two key tools have also been developed by the DPA to assist and support principals. One tool is a digital portfolio, which may be used by principals as a repository for accumulating evidence against the Standard. Another is a self-assessment tool to assist principals to ascertain whether they have met the Standard. Two other DPA registered principals assess the portfolio three months prior to the registration period expiring (see Chapter Seven). Other providers of principal preparation programs are also using these tools.

The DPA is not a provider of professional learning. Rather, it accredits some 150 professional development offerings and 700 products from Holland, and thereby acts more as a clearing-house for other professional learning opportunities and access to the self-assessment tool against the DPA Standard.

While the DPA has been set up for serving principals, it also appears to be playing a key role in principal preparation. In the Netherlands, participation in principal preparation programs, typically two-years in length, is voluntary. The DPA reports that all principal training agencies already use the DPA Professional Standard and digital portfolio to guide their program's approach to principal preparation. In the near future the DPA hopes to be acknowledged as the accrediting body for all principal training agencies. Moving towards this goal, they have been working with two principal training agencies on a recommendation to the Department of Education for the development and implementation of a mandatory standards-guided starter qualification program in 2007.

These summaries indicate that each country is making a concerted effort to lift the quality of professional preparation and development for school leaders. The necessity for quality professional learning is widely recognised in the five systems (and others) we reviewed. Overall, the systems reflect genuine attempts by responsible standards bodies and service providers to address perennial concerns that professional learning is often too brief, fragmented and rarely sequential and developmental. Key issues in addressing these concerns are discussed below.

⁹ The DPA's research found the average CPD time used by an individual per year was between 80-100 hours.

Critical analysis

Role of the standards development body in providing professional learning

Chapter Two introduced the five systems and identified the responsible body for the standards development. Responsible bodies for developing school leadership standards have decisions to make about what type of role they will play, if any, beyond the development of the standards. All five responsible bodies played roles in the professional learning infrastructure beyond developing standards for school leadership. We were particularly interested in the relationship between the body responsible for the standards development and providers of professional learning. Basically, there were three types of relationship:

The responsible standards body

1. designed and provided the leadership course/s (e.g. WA)
2. designed the leadership course, but invited submissions from service provider(s) (e.g. England)
3. invited course providers to submit to the standards development body their courses for approval and/or accreditation (e.g. Connecticut)

Generally, the above roles reflect two dimensions – a provider dimension and a quality assurance dimension. Some, like England's NCSL are involved in both, while others, such as Holland's DPA do not provide the CPD preferring to direct resources into aspects of quality assurance.

At the other end of the continuum is the USA's ABLE (see Chapter Two), based on the NBPTS model. The proposal involves a completely hands-off approach to course provision and program development, with existing professional learning infrastructures and providers seen as better serving this function. In this model, the standards body concentrates on providing rigorous procedures for school leaders who apply for professional certification. The standards body is not involved directly in the provision of professional development programs, but concentrates on providing a highly regarded certification and building a market for those who gain it. A rigorous performance-based certification system based on profession-defined standards removes the need to establish a system for assessing and accrediting courses. Courses will live or die according to school leader assessments of how well they helped them prepare for professional certification. Better still, as in the NBPTS experience, teachers and school leaders applying for certification will create their own networks and support groups supported by their professional associations and organisations.

The five standards development bodies in this review also played roles in professional learning such as the following:

- developing professional learning tools for gathering evidence about the different standards, such as portfolios (e.g. Holland, USA- ABLE);
- developing self-assessment tools, such as rating scales, 360 degree feedback (e.g. Holland, Connecticut, WA);
- providing training for assessors of the standards for school leadership (e.g. WA, Connecticut, England, ABLE, Holland, Scotland); and
- Leading or participating in school leadership research (e.g. Holland, England, WA)

Four of the five system's responsible bodies for standards are directly involved in the provision of professional learning programs for prospective and established principals. The locus of control in England rests firmly with the NCSL as a government agency. This may be part of a larger contextual narrative of wresting control away from universities. Other systems, such as the traditional US system, still had the locus of control resting with the universities. The nature of the responsible bodies' involvement in provision and assessment is discussed further in Chapter Seven.

All five systems encourage professional learning from diverse providers and collaborations. Indeed, in England and Scotland consortia arrangements between academic, local authorities and/or other partners are a pre-requisite to bid for delivery of the national principal preparation programs. An argument for this shift in provision is that mixed modes of learning (work-based in situ learning, mentoring, coaching, shadowing and, in Connecticut internships) require a mix of expertise and networks that traditional university structures and approaches may not be able to accommodate.

Typically, funds for participating in professional learning came from government agencies, such as Education Departments. Generally, individuals had to pay for their own professional learning, but for the most part this came from centrally devolved funding. Information gathered from Connecticut and Scotland suggested that policy alignment and significant investment of funds from government are key enablers to a viable and sustainable professional learning infrastructure.

Framing learning along some form of career stage continuum

Professional standards give long-term direction to professional learning. The use of the standards to provide a continuum of learning from teaching to school leadership and to wider roles in educational leadership was a strong feature of all the systems we reviewed.

More recently, a number of researchers have drawn attention to the need to consider career stages (Mulford, 2005b; Oplatka, 2004). The concept of career stages (and pathways) challenges the assumption that "once a leader, especially a principal, always a leader" (Mulford, 2005c). Leadership learning and learning about

leadership does not stop by virtue of obtaining a post, but is part of a life long commitment to what it means to be a profession. Continuums are a way of organising an individual's learning and career pathways, and this may not equate to a linear trajectory.

Continuums in the systems we reviewed are an acknowledgement that more than “a leader” is required to improve student learning and manage different accountability obligations. Far from diminishing the role of principal, these continuums are an attempt to enhance the leadership of schools by addressing concerns about PD. These concerns are both conceptual (e.g. the non-sequential or developmental nature of PD) and practical (e.g. that PD is fragmented and too brief). The presence of continuums reflects a more general trend across OECD member countries towards developing systematic strategies for leadership development (e.g. OECD, 2001).

Usually, the continuums we looked at were defined by three to five different stages of leadership experience, such as project leadership through to strategic leadership in the case of Scotland. Typically, the centrepiece of the continuum is a principal preparation program (e.g. Connecticut, England, Western Australia) or programs (e.g. Holland and Scotland). Huber's (2004) research about leadership preparation in cases from fifteen countries identified differences in the timing and emphasis placed on content and work-based learning. The five systems we reviewed all had leadership preparation prior to appointment as principal.

Falling either side of principal preparation programs are increasing numbers of other programs for school leaders or principals. Notable in most of the systems was an acknowledgement and acceptance that not all school leaders will, or will seek to, become principals. Hence, the development of other programs, such as England's *Leading from the Middle*.

The same set of school leadership standards is used to guide the learning provision and assessment at all stages along the continuum, usually indicating different levels of performance. The links between standards, assessment of performance and professional learning along this continuum are discussed in the next section.

Linking standards for school leadership to professional learning

All five systems use standards for school leadership to guide and assist leaders navigate and select continuous professional learning and development. In this sense, standards for school leadership can act as an important ethical and research-based frame of reference for the development and implementation of a professional learning infrastructure. This purpose of professional standards is important when considered alongside findings, such as those of Duignan et al (2003 in Duignan, 2004) that “leaders in contemporary organisations require frames of reference that can assist them to manage situations of uncertainty, ambiguity and seeming contradictions and paradox” (p. 10). The extent to which the systems could claim

the standards are informed by the best available evidence has already been discussed (see Chapters Three, Four and Five).

Common to all five systems (and others) were attempts to link the content of the standards (representing big chunks of school leaders' work) to the content of the system's professional learning. "Developing self and others", for example, was a focus in all the PD and sets of standards we reviewed. However, how providers and professionals used the standards do indicate differences.

At a basic level, the most common approach for linking standards to PD was for providers in each system to take the existing content of professional development offerings (usually a course) and map them onto the standards. For example, the NCSL is in the process of mapping the content of its programs onto the revised standards. This is a practical way of linking existing professional learning to new or revised standards. Alternatively, some systems, such as Western Australia, are using the standards to design and develop new programs, for example, the Formative Leadership Program.

Professionals taking the standards and selecting PD *they* think will help them meet the standards was a less common and developed approach to linking standards to professional learning. This approach to linking standards and professional learning offers great flexibility and ownership by the professional to determine their own needs and learning pathways. In our view, the USA's ABLE proposal best reflects this approach (see Chapter Two). Of the five systems we reviewed, the DPA approach probably came the closest to the ABLE proposal. The DPA emphasises the standard and what leaders must do to meet the standard, rather than providing the professional learning.

Placing individuals in a more active role with respect to their professional learning

A goal for profession-wide standards guided learning systems is to place individuals in a more active role with respect to their professional learning. This area needs more work and is an issue encountered by many systems, not just the five we reviewed. Overall, there are some encouraging developments in the five systems towards realising this goal in practice.

The opportunity for teachers and school leaders to play a stronger role in the professional learning system starts with the development of standards for school leadership (see Chapter Five). This gives the profession a role in determining the direction and goals for professional learning.

That noted; the most common way individuals seemed to be playing a more active role in their professional learning was the option in each system for individuals to self-direct and manage their professional learning curriculum. Generally, this meant individuals had multiple pathways of entry and exit along the career stage continuum.

Edinburgh's Local Authority, for example, takes into account the prior learning of individuals who have undertaken the national SQH within its own professional learning framework.

The flexibility to self-direct was less evident across the systems with respect to aspiring principals. Here, principal preparation programs, usually of two years in length took precedent over an option for individuals to build up their own performance based experiences and learning. Within this constraint though, most of the systems offered flexible options for individuals (and teams) to select and manage the order they undertook modules from a program and over what period, as was the case with WA's Introductory program.

Emphasising performance-based methods and assessment rather than course completion alone

Standards for school leadership should be able to indicate not only the content of the PD, but also the evidence a leader would need to gather along the way to demonstrate they have met the standard (see Chapter Four). Take, for example, Scotland's CPD Framework sphere of "school leadership". The achievement of the Standard for Headship sits within this level. So if we were principals, or aspiring principals, we should be able to look at the guiding professional learning statements, such as "A school leader develops and communicates strategic direction that inspires and motivates the whole school" and get a sense of what we have to do to meet one or more of the standards (see Chapter Four).

Courses are still the dominant mode of thinking about how to support leadership professional development. Having said this though, using performance-based methods as part of an overall program approach was very strong across all five systems. This depicts what Fullan (2002) notes as a shift from "acquisition" of information to its "use" in relation to a given school context. In this sense, each system has attempted, to varying degrees, to develop methods that are experiential and innovative.

Noteworthy, is the attention paid to lengthy structured and mentor supported internships, as in the case from Connecticut, and induction programs in cases from England and Edinburgh, Scotland. Shadowing, problem-based simulations/case study tasks and reflective journal writing/portfolio entries are key features within these programs. These activities place the individual in an authentic situation requiring them to undertake a continuous cycle of thinking, doing, analysing and re-evaluating (see Chapter Four). To do this well requires time.

A difference noted between the five systems was the level of time allocated by employers to assist individuals gather and write up evidence. Participants in the WA Leadership Centre's programs do, for the most part, attend the course components in school holiday time. Scotland provides thirty-five hours/year; Holland 169

hours/year, while England and Connecticut's principal preparation programs require from participants about five days and ninety hours respectively.

The mentors in these aspirant or induction programs are generally highly accomplished principals (or retired principals). A unique feature from the DPA was the "RDO" status granted to highly accomplished principals. "Highly accomplished" meant a principal had been certified against the DPA Standard. This certification offered an additional quality assurance mechanism in the infrastructure for others in education and the public. Typically, these programs grouped people together as a cohort or network to increase the opportunity for learning with and from each other.

Weindling (2004) cited a 2003 OfSTED report on six providers of the NCSL's Headlamp program (now called HIP). The report judged that the providers (two Local Education Authorities, two universities, a professional association and a diocesan) offered good quality training, with headteacher participants reporting the experience had, for example, improved their confidence. Weaknesses though were also noted. Development of mentors, the overall assessment/quality assurance and the use of group learning were all noted as weaknesses of the program. So while the headteachers may have felt more supported, this did not necessarily translate into improving their leadership for improved student learning.

Summary

In summary, each system reviewed has attempted to link standards for school leadership to a more coherent career stage continuum of professional learning. Some systems design courses around the standards. Other systems ensure the professional learning infrastructure is geared to the standards by ensuring that certification is based on evidence of their performance provided by school leaders, as defined in the standards. There are signs that individuals are playing a more active role in their professional learning, guided by standards and linked to performance, but there is still a long way for most of these systems to go before they could be described as standards-guided learning systems.

Our next chapter reviews the procedures used in each of the five systems (and others) to make judgements about whether standards for school leaders have been attained.

Chapter Seven: Assessing and recognising attainment of standards for school leadership

If professional standards are to serve the key purposes outlined in Chapter One, they not only need to indicate what effective school leaders should know and be able to do, they need to indicate how one would know if the standards were being met. As pointed out in Chapter Four, a set of standards is incomplete, and inadequate, if it does not indicate the procedures that can be used to gather evidence about practice and levels of performance. The need for this is clearly understood when it comes to making valid assessments of student achievement, yet frequently misunderstood and less readily accepted when it comes to standards for teaching and school leadership.

Chapters Five and Six reviewed approaches to developing content standards for school leadership in five countries - and the professional learning infrastructure each had developed to support teachers, principals and other school leaders to attain the standards. This chapter focuses on the approaches each system used to assess or judge whether the standards had been met, as well as the forms of recognition or certification that were given to those who meet the standards. Particular attention will be given to the steps that each system takes to ensure that the judgement is reliable, valid and professionally credible.

The main questions that guided this part of the review included:

- Who provides certification for prospective or established school leaders who attain the standards?
- What forms of evidence are used to assess whether the standards have been attained?
- Who assesses whether school leaders have attained the standards and how are they trained to use the standards fairly and reliably?
- To what extent is the process of assessment for certification a vehicle for professional learning?

Standards are of little use if they cannot be used to assess performance, even the assessment of one's own performance. We are not talking here about assessment or measurement as a regulatory function. We are talking about informed judgement that aims to help people lift their performance. Feedback is essential to learning, especially learning new skills, and one cannot give or gain useful feedback if one cannot make valid, insightful assessments of performance, based on standards. Standards are a tool for making useful judgements about performance in order to improve it.

The lack of systems for providing useful and accurate feedback about performance is perhaps the fundamental weakness in a professional learning system for teaching and school leadership. Feedback is what everyone needs as they try to incorporate new

skills into their practice. The view is sometimes expressed that standards are fine for professional development, but they should not be used for assessing. The point is that their use for professional learning is minimal if they are not, or cannot be, used to assess performance. Generally, there has been a shift from the old culture of teaching as a “closed” practice to a new culture of practice that is more “open” to learning and critical reflection.

This chapter examines each of the selected standards systems in terms of how the standards are used to assess performance, both for professional learning and for deciding whether the standards have been met. It also reviews, briefly, the procedures used to give recognition or certification to school leaders who meet the standards. Before examining the systems, it is necessary to clarify some terms like licensure and certification that will be used in the discussion and to say a little more about assessing performance against standards.

Meanings of terms – licensure and certification

The most commonly used form of recognition for school leaders who meet the standards across the five systems is “certification,” but this term means different things in different contexts. It is important to clarify these differences and to distinguish the usage of terms such as licensure, registration and certification. In broad terms, we distinguish certification (eligibility) specific to government agencies from certification awarded by a professional body.

Licensure and certification

“Licensure” is commonly used in the US. For over seventy years most state governments have required aspiring school principals to gain a state license to be eligible to apply for school principal positions – the occupation is regulated. As described in Chapter Six, the legislation usually specifies that the main way to gain a license is to complete an approved or accredited leadership program from a university. Approval is usually decided by state education departments; states are increasingly making approval of these programs contingent on universities gaining accreditation from an independent national professional body, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.

“Certification” is often used in the US in the same sense as licensure above, and in the same sense as the term “registration” is used in Australia – as a compulsory requirement to enter a profession – a function normally administered by a statutory authority. The ISLLC standards, although developed at the national level by a consortium of state superintendents, professional associations and academics, were provided to states to use in their own licensure systems. In Connecticut, a person must undertake an approved “certification” program and undertake a Connecticut Administrator Test (CAT) in order to be licensed. Licensing means a person is eligible to apply for a principal post.

Several commentators are of the view that the licensing system for principals in the US has lost its validity and therefore its utility (Levine, 2005). It is not based on performance in leadership roles. Davis et al's (2005) review argued that principals who are "licensed" do not necessarily have the "capacity" to enact the role. Similarly, the Chief Executive of NCSL in England noted that more individuals want to become headteachers (up from 45% in 2004 to 57% in 2005) but questions their "readiness" for the role (Munby, 2005).

More recently, the Educational Testing Service (ETS) has developed a test, the School Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA), which is currently required by fifteen state licensing boards to measure whether entry-level professionals have the knowledge and skills to perform competently on the job. The SLLA consists of twenty-five constructed-response questions, ranging from short vignettes requiring a brief response to much longer case study exercises. It was created by advisory committees of distinguished principals, superintendents and other school administrators, professors of educational administration, and members of professional organisations. The committees help to determine test content and review, revise and approve all questions and exercises. The School Leaders Licensure Assessment is grounded in the ISLLC Standards for School Leaders and current research, including a complete job analysis of the most important tasks and skills required of beginning principals and superintendents, and extensive surveys to confirm test validity.

Just to make things confusing, "certification" is used in another sense in our non-US systems, such as England. Successful completion of England's NPQH program is mandatory for individuals who wish to apply for a headteacher post. "Successful" completion is decided by the course providers, and certification is consequently given by the National College for School Leadership on their advice. Unlike in England and Wales, the Scottish Qualification for Headship is voluntary. The USA and England, like Canada, are, in effect, regulated systems. Australia has neither certification nor licensure. Australia has never regulated entry to school leadership by means of a mandatory registration or licensing system.

Professional certification

We will make a distinction in this review between certification that, in effect, is awarded by a government, or government agency; and certification that is awarded by an independent professional body (e.g. the CPA for accountants; the Chartered Engineer; the specialist medical colleges). An example of professional certification for school leaders can be found in the ABLE proposal (see Chapter Two), which is based on the successful NBPTS model of performance-based certification for accomplished teachers.

The term professional certification, in this review, means an endorsement that an independent professional body gives to a member who has attained a specified set of performance standards defined by the profession. Certification by a professional body is usually:

- available to all members of the profession;
- based on assessment of performance (not an academic qualification, although such qualifications may have a valuable role in preparing for certification); and
- portable and belonging to the person (not a job or position or classification specific to a school or employing authority).

Profession-determined standards and certification are likely to be voluntary, with the profession building its own infrastructure for defining standards, promoting development over the long term toward those standards, and providing recognition to those who reach them. Systems for *professional* standards and certification aim to provide a valuable service to the employing authorities and the government. Also, they are complementary to, not a replacement for, the quality assurance and professional learning that employers provide.

Western Australia and Holland have a suite of principal preparation programs that are voluntary – although this looks set to change in Holland. WA now uses assessment against the personal attributes in the WA leadership standards to assist in the selection of principals in that school system. The DPA uses both terms: registration and certification. The DPA registers principals and is the responsible body for certifying principals who attain the DPA Standard.

Judging performance against standards for school leadership

As mentioned, standards are not complete without a clear indication of how to decide whether they have been met. Content standards indicate what should be assessed, but there also need to be guidelines about how valid examples of school leader practice will be “captured” or gathered. In the case of teaching this is relatively straightforward. If one asks a teacher to show an example of their teaching, they can take you to their classroom. They may ask you to watch, for example, how they create a safe and intellectually challenging context for student discussion – that is, how they meet the related standards. A video might be used to capture this example of practice, supported by the teacher’s commentary on what they were trying to do and what to notice in the video. Samples of student work over time are another way of capturing evidence of a teacher’s performance.

It is not so easy to think of a school leader taking someone to an example of their leadership – to think of ways of capturing samples of school leader performance. However, a lot of progress has been made in recent years in identifying suitable assessment tasks and methods for providing evidence – usually big chunks of work such as the Building Professional Community standard described in Chapter Four. Box 7 below provides an illustration of the meaning of “performance”, as in performance standards.

Box 7: Performance Standards – it’s all Greek

A good way to understand the idea of performance standards is to use the example of the decathlon, as in the Olympics. People in Greece used to argue, apparently, about who was the greatest all-round athlete. The *concept* of the all-round athlete therefore needed clearer definition. What should all-round athletes be able to do? After a lot of debate, the concept was made concrete and it was decided that they should be able to run fast, jump far, swim fast, etc, etc. Ten areas were selected. In other words, a set of *content* standards was defined – the domain, the scope of what should be measured, if you were judging whether someone was a good all-round athlete.

The next step was to decide *how* to measure it. What evidence should an athlete be asked to provide to show they were good all-round athletes? Ten events had to be defined and structured. For example, “we will measure how fast you can run by clocking you over, say, 100 metres.” And so on ... An appropriate set of ten tasks had to be designed to capture samples of all-round athletic ability. And so the concept of the all-round athlete would be operationalised.

The remaining step was to set the standard – to decide on levels of performance. Performance standards not only had to specify how well an athlete must do in *each* event to qualify; they needed to specify how well they must do across *all* events on the average to be rated a good all round athlete. *Setting* performance standards, in other words, is just as important and complex as developing the content standards.

(Adapted from Ingvarson, 2002) available via
<http://www.acer.edu.au/publications/policybriefs/policybrief1.pdf>

Gathering evidence for certification

How do the five systems decide whether professional standards for school leaders are being met? Traditional licensure systems in the USA based their licensure decision only on evidence of completing course assignments. The validity of these licenses as indicators of leadership capacity or a record of achievement in teaching and school leadership has always been a matter of debate or doubt.

The previous chapter indicated a shift toward school leadership standards that are performance-based rather than course-based. Standards describe good practice and performance-based standards have increased the validity and further endorse the quality of school leadership practices by the person who attains these standards (e.g. DPA recognition of RDO after the name of the principal). While standards describe good practice, certification is an endorsement that a person has attained those standards. The credibility and any benefit of certification depend on its validity.

The shift to performance-based standards and certification brings a new approach to professional learning. The standards and the methods of assessment themselves can then become the major vehicle driving the professional learning, as discussed in Chapter Six.

Methods for gathering evidence for certification in the five systems

Successful course completion is the main basis for providing certification across most systems. However, in keeping with the broader trends in professional learning and development, there is a trend for school leadership preparation programs in the five systems (and other countries) we reviewed to contain elements of performance in-situ and authentic tasks (see Chapter Six). These authentic tasks, undertaken by teachers, principals and other school leaders, can act as a vehicle for professional learning and provide evidence of attaining the standards. There are practical benefits as well to learning through these types of authentic tasks.

Candidates, for example, doing Scotland's SQH program reported their school benefited greatly from them doing a project aligned to an area within the school's Improvement Plan. Headteachers also felt the approach had a positive impact on the teaching and learning culture of the school because of the enthusiastic and coordinated manner in which the task was completed. Conversely, however, some candidates found the SQH overly academic, with many of the judgements by assessors still too paper-based (McEntyre, 2005).

Various types of school-based activities or projects are being used as part of preparation programs to link theory to practice. Portfolios can contain documented accounts of these activities with commentary and reflection building as a means of building a record of learning and achievement in school leadership. Some type of supervision or mentoring was provided across the systems to support candidates as they undertook and wrote up their practice and achievements.

Records of practice and achievement, under some kind of supervision or mentoring, are the most common forms of evidence for advanced certification used by specialist colleges in medicine. The core idea of a portfolio is that it is an organised selection of entries presenting evidence of what one can do in relation to a set of standards. It contains a range of 'entries', providing multiple forms of evidence related to the standards. Entries may also take a variety of forms. These may be paper-based, or, as in the case of the DPA, part of a digital portfolio. The DPA's portfolio content is determined by the prospective principal, who may continue to add to it over time as a serving principal. Entries reflect performance of the standards, which is accompanied by some form of verification process by two DPA registered principals, who act as external assessors.

The only system that provides candidates with structured guidelines for preparing evidence of performance to enter into a portfolio is the NBPTS (the ABLE proposal based on the NBPTS¹⁰). The NBPTS has found that structured guidelines increase the quality of the entries - and the reliability and fairness of the assessment. An

¹⁰ For a description of the NBPTS approach to certification, see Ingvarson and Kleinhenz (2006) "Advanced Standards for Teaching" A literature review and critical analysis of literature.

example of a portfolio task, *Leading and Managing Change*, developed by ACER for the Catholic Education Commission of Victoria, was presented earlier (see Chapter Four). This structured portfolio task is designed so that teachers and school leaders can select an area of need in their school and tell the story of how they led and managed a change effort to meet that need. Completion of the portfolio task provides performance evidence of how they met one of the core elements of the CECV standards.

Another approach to gathering evidence for certification in each system was to develop assessment centre/scenario type exercises. In four of the five systems these tasks were conducted outside of the workplace (at a centre), and conducted as the final piece of assessment for certification.

Assessment centre exercises are usually used to gather evidence related to standards that cannot be gathered by other means. For example, standards for teaching often call for evidence that teachers know the subject matter they are expected to teach. Assessment Centre exercises would tap into this knowledge. Standards for school leaders might include expectations of familiarity with recent research on leadership, and likewise, it is conceivable that Assessment Centre items could be designed to test this knowledge. Scenarios and simulations of various kinds have been used as methods for gathering evidence and making judgements, but their validity is unknown or uncertain. They are not “authentic” in the same sense as gathering evidence of performance for a portfolio entry, although they may be based on “authentic tasks/situations” a school leader may face at work. Generally, gathering the evidence for this type of assessment in each of the systems takes one day. During this day, candidates participate in a range of problem-solving tasks, such as an “in-tray” prioritising task. The broad category of assessment/diagnostic contains a wide range of examples. A few are presented below.

The Connecticut Administrator Test (CAT) must be undertaken by any candidate seeking their Intermediate Administrator certificate. It requires candidates to respond to situations as if they were a principal or a supervisor, but the CAT is applicable to other levels of responsibility within the school as well (e.g. assistant principal, department head). The CAT organises questions around four categories, such as Knowledge of Learners, Knowledge of Teaching and Learning. The categories are a synthesis of the twelve Connecticut Standards for School Leaders. Candidates write a response by interrogating a variety of materials, such as video; student work; school data and scenarios. The test is long (e.g. 6.5 hours) if completed in one sitting. While not the only form of evidence, the test forms a significant component of the evidence that needs to be submitted for licensure.

The DPA’s version of an assessment task is their patented Competence Analysis® tool – developed in co-operation with ten organisations in the field of Human Resource Management. Prospective and established principals use the tool to assess their own performance against the DPA professional standards. The analysis guides further professional development selections by the individual. The tool is available online and is self-administered.

The WA Leadership Centre uses scenarios, amongst a range of assessment exercises, to assess the extent to which candidates for principal positions would display attributes such as tactfulness in their everyday work. (Wildy & Pepper, Forthcoming). In another type of assessment exercise, candidates are asked to listen to a talk by an “expert” and to describe what they would say to their staff or school council about the key messages from the talk.

As a summary statement, we found that the methods for gathering evidence of school leader performance against standards across the five systems were only at an early stage of development. In most cases there appeared to be limited awareness of the critical importance of ensuring that judgments about performance were reliable and valid. While considerable research has been conducted on the validity of new forms of performance assessment for teaching, such as portfolio entries and assessment centre tasks, we found little research to support the practices being used in the five systems to decide whether the standards had been met. The history of evaluation of teaching suggests that if these systems do not get this piece right, and develop credibility, the enterprise would lose respect and lose its capacity to add value to professional learning.

Professional involvement in certification processes: Who assesses? Who certifies?

As noted previously, none of these systems provides an example of a professional certification system operated by the profession, with the exception perhaps of the DPA. In each system, the profession’s involvement is more evident in standards development than in providing the professional learning infrastructure or operating the assessment and certification system.

Identifying the nature and level of involvement by the profession in each certification system has been a challenge. Visibility or invisibility of the profession’s voice can be masked by language, such as “committees”; “groups” and “consultation”. Most often this language pertains to standards development but is generally silent when the issue of assessment against the standards is raised.

Examination of the five systems reveals two approaches to assessment and certification. One approach is more “hands-off” than the other. England’s NCSL, in effect, currently delegates the assessment decision about a prospective principal to the course provider. We were not able to find out how course providers conducted these assessments, but the NCSL monitors the courses and intervenes if there is a dispute between the candidate and provider over the assessment decision.

In contrast, under the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) based ABE proposal, the ABE Board would maintain control over the nature of the evidence to be presented, the assessment of the evidence (e.g. portfolio entries) and the certification decision. Similar to the DPA, it proposes a cross-state profession-driven approach to certification facilitated by ABE. The ABE proposal

differs from the DPA, and all other examples reviewed, because its sole concern would have been the provision of a “voluntary” advanced certification system, and it would have restricted its operation to managing the certification system. Unlike the NCSL model, it would not involve itself directly in the provision of professional learning programs, or in their accreditation, although it would strongly encourage a variety of providers.

Underpinning the ABLE proposal is a belief that if the components of the certification system are credible (i.e. standards and assessment), and if the certification gains recognition from employing authorities, then providers will develop professional learning activities to support candidates for ABLE certification. Aspiring school leaders and established school leaders will seek out the kind of professional learning activities that provide them with the theory, the knowledge and the skills they need in order to develop toward the standards and build a record of achievement in school leadership.

The ABLE approach opens the door for the emergence of a diverse infrastructure to support standards-based professional learning, provided by many groups, especially professional associations. The professional involvement in the ABLE proposal, like the NBPTS, would have been high.

Table 2 provides an overview of different types of professional involvement in certification and who the certification bodies are in the various countries.

Table 2: Professional Involvement in Certification and the Certifying Body

Country	Types of Professional Involvement in Developing Assessment Procedures	Certification Decision	Certification Body
Canada - Ontario	Delegated to course providers, so unknown.	Delegated to provider	Statutory Authority – Ontario College of Teachers (OTC)
England	Delegated to course providers who appoint and train assessors. The assessors may or may not be principals.	Delegated to provider	Non Departmental Public Body – National College for School Leadership (NCSL)
Netherlands – DPA	Principals, facilitated by the DPA, set the criteria for assessment instruments.	DPA	Independent Professional Body – DPA
Scotland	Delegated to course providers who appoint and train assessors. The assessors may or may not be principals.	Delegated to provider	Scottish Executive - Government
United States – ABLE	Professional involvement based on the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards model.	American Board for Leadership in Education (ABLE)	Independent Professional Body – ABLE
United States - Connecticut	Principals and Superintendents developed the initial prototypes, CSDE and ETS worked with a team of highly experienced school principals to develop and field-test the current assessments.	Delegated to provider	Statutory Authority - Connecticut State Department of Education (CSDE)
Western Australia	Assessors are school-based personnel who undertake the same process as the peers they will be rating.	Western Australian Leadership Centre	Incorporated Body – The Western Australian Leadership Centre

A key decision for each system is whether the profession-wide standards will be used for certification, and if so, will the certification be voluntary or mandatory?

Voluntary, mandatory, or no certification?

It is always a matter of choice for an individual whether to aim for professional certification. However, certification schemes within particular employing authorities or jurisdictions are usually eligibility requirements. There is a distinct swing in the five systems toward mandating successful completion of preparatory programs for aspiring principals. Connecticut has the CAT requirement for licensure, and the Netherlands' starter qualification training program (Opleiding Schoolleider Primair Onderwijs, OSPO) looks as though it will be a mandatory qualification from 2007. In these systems, employer "certification" is mandatory for principals to be eligible for appointment (as opposed to voluntary certification by a professional body as defined earlier).

England and Wales recently introduced mandatory preparatory programs leading to employer certification. England's NCSL National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) was a voluntary program for the first five years. At this time, participants had their fees fully subsidised. April 2004 saw NPMH become a mandatory program for all first time headteachers. The costs are now 80% subsidised by the College for most state schools.

Scotland, unlike England, has multiple paths to headship (see Edinburgh example in Chapter Six). The national Scottish Qualification for Headship (SQH) represents one pathway. The SQH was to be a mandatory qualification for headship in 2005, but not enough candidates have achieved the Standard to meet the number of vacant headteacher positions in Scotland. Hence, similar to England's introduction of their NPMH program, the SQH has undergone a revamp and any decision to mandate the program for aspiring headteachers is presently on hold.

Australia and New Zealand have no requirement for school principals to be trained, qualified or certified in school leadership. However, both countries offer an extensive range of professional development for school leaders (For Australian examples see Appendices Three and Four). Numerous qualifications in educational leadership and management are also offered through various institutions (e.g. thirty-one in New Zealand). Prospective or established principals might do one or more of these courses – often motivated by their own values and preferences. Under the ABE proposed model, these existing professional learning offerings could support prospective and established principals attain the school leadership standards.

As professional certification gains credibility as evidence of professional learning and accomplishment, jurisdictions can choose whether to provide various forms of incentives and recognition to those who gain it. All states in the USA, for example, now provide some form of recognition to teachers who gain National Board certification.

Levels of certification

Standards can be structured according to career stage or level and areas of specialism. Two levels for principals are common in the literature – one for prospective and one for established principals – though England has created a specialist area of school leadership (See Table 3 for examples). “Advanced certification” or portable certification recognised profession-wide are rare (e.g. USA’s ABLE proposal). The one set of standards can serve both purposes by indicating two or more levels of expected performance on the standards (e.g. from ‘competent’ to ‘distinguished’).

Table 3: Standards-Guided Certification

Country	Certification	Level of Certification	Specialism	Portability
Australia – WA	✓	Entry ¹¹	X	Government sector in WA
Canada - Ontario	✓	Entry	X	Within Ontario
England	✓	Entry	Integrated Children’s Centres	England & Wales
Netherlands – DPA	✓	Entry & Advanced	X	Netherlands
Scotland	✓	Entry	X	Scotland
United States – ABLE [A NBPTS Model] (Proposal only)	✓	Advanced	Four categories proposed e.g. primary/secondary	USA
United States - Connecticut	✓	Entry	X	Within Connecticut
Wales	✓	Entry	X	Wales & England

¹¹ The WA Leadership Centre Board is leading a discussion currently on how a level 5 or 6 Principal would prepare for the certification assessment. In operation, presently, is certification at the “entry level”.

(It is also conceivable that leadership standards could be differentiated according to school level (e.g. early childhood education, primary, middle and secondary), or according to size of school and location (e.g. remote, rural, urban) or both, but we did not find cases where this was so)

The DPA, for example, uses its Professional Standard for entry level and advanced certification. At the entry level, in addition to the portfolio entries, candidates need to only demonstrate 100 hours of professional development over the last year and are not required to undertake the interview. Gathering evidence for “advanced certification,” in addition to the portfolio entries, involves principals undertaking 300 hours of professional development in the last three years and a critical incident interview.

When it comes to portability, federal systems of government tend to be at a disadvantage, compared with countries like England and Scotland. A certified principal, for example, from Manitoba, Canada still needs to undertake 250 hours of the Principal Qualification Program (PQP) course and the 60-hour practicum if they wish to practice in Ontario. It is easy to see how a principal might view this as a “hoop jumping” rather than professional learning exercise.

In Connecticut, to minimise the potential “hoop jumping”, all out-of-state principals with three or more years of successful educational experience outside of Connecticut are eligible for a CAT waiver. The waiver is subject to the principal’s direct supervisor’s and superintendent’s endorsement. Those principals with less than three years experience outside of Connecticut are allowed one year to take the CAT or the School Leader Licensure Assessment (SLLA) (www.eastconn.org/CAT.htm).

Another issue is whether national certification, irrespective of level or specialism, should be “for life” or require “renewal”. The general trend toward life-long learning and development, as an indicator of what it means to be a professional, may suggest the latter. The certification examples reviewed reflect both “for life”, or some form of “renewal” option, say every ten years. In the case of the DPA, for example, re-registration is required every three years.

Access to certification programs

Access to certification programs varies between countries. Ontario and Connecticut, for example, require evidence of teaching experience (i.e. five and three years respectively) before a candidate may undertake a provider’s certification offering. Other qualifications, such as a Masters degree or subject specialist qualifications are also specified access requirements by Ontario.

The DPA emphasise adherence to a profession-defined code of conduct and being a practising primary principal (for their advanced certification) or holding some other leadership role in a school (for entry level certification). From inception of the

standard development to the time of this literature review, 2,200 primary principals out of a total population of 10,000 primary principals have registered with the DPA. Key to an individual's access to certification is demonstration, through an assignment and written support from the school Board, of the candidate's planning budget and decision-making experience.

Western Australia has no prerequisites currently to enter the "Introductory School Leadership Program", except a written application and interview. The NCSL also requires a written application supported by the headteacher in the applicant's school. The support from the headteacher is not essential but desirable, for example, to aid development and implementation of the candidate's school-based improvement project. England's written application is designed tightly around the six standards for headteachers. Applicants are asked to provide evidence against the standards relevant to their current school leadership experiences. The application is used to determine eligibility but also the route into the NPQH program. Currently, there are three routes¹² into the NPQH. A more experienced candidate, for example, who has been "acting in the role of headteacher" for a period may enter straight into route two - the development school improvement project phase.

Candidates for Scotland's SQH must be registered with the General Teaching Council of Scotland (GTCS), have at least five years teaching experience, be registered with one of the three approved university-led provider consortia prior to undertaking the program, and be sponsored by their Local Authority (there is a limited amount of funds for applicants per intake). Similar to England, candidates in Scotland must also have a guarantee from their headteacher to support them and the applicant must write an application that demonstrates a commitment to CPD.

Support for certification

The cost of completing England's NPQH varies according to school-type and access route into the program. The maximum cost is approximately \$8,499 (Aus). This cost is 80% subsidised by the National College for School Leadership for most state schools. Generally, there is an expectation that the school will pay the remaining 20%. By being certified, an individual is eligible to participate in other NCSL leadership development phases of professional learning (See Chapter Six). Sometimes these additional learning opportunities also give rise to the possibility for new short- or long-term career paths (e.g. as consultant leaders). Certification also provides points towards accreditation routes into university Masters degrees.

In Scotland, successful completion of the SQH is treated as equivalent to completing a postgraduate diploma by all consortia HEIs and gains points towards a Scottish

¹² The three routes are being phased out. A new modularised program is being developed and piloted in readiness for full implementation by September 2006. It has a working title of Personalised Leadership Learning Program.

Masters. McEntrye (2004) noted, however, that there was variation in the value each of the thirty-two Local Authorities placed on the qualification. Some Authorities used the qualification as a signal to help them partly “filter” prospective candidates for headship. In other Authorities, McEntrye found that the SQH qualification was seen as desirable, but in other cases not considered at all.

In Holland, the DPA focuses on establishing the infrastructure and ongoing validity of the DPA standard for principals and other stakeholders to tap into and use. Regions often set up peer-support structures to support candidates meet the standard. At this level, candidates may access a regional CPD fund in support of professional learning opportunities they source from the DPA. Access to this fund does have its provisos. CPD funding will be more forthcoming if aligned with the regional priorities. Generally, the region will pay for the certification of prospective principals.

Meeting the DPA Professional Standard is recognised by the registered principal being allowed to use the title RDO, which stands for Registered Principal in Education. Such a title signals to employers, the public and other colleagues that the principal has met the DPA’s standard of quality school leadership. It enhances the professional status of the principal.

Under the ABLE proposal for accomplished school leaders, the cost of undertaking the certification process would in theory be paid by the individual. However, in the NBPTS experience, state governments and employing authorities increasingly cover the costs as they become convinced about the effects of the certification process on professional development. They also develop various forms of incentives and recognition such as salary loading and bonus schemes for nationally certified teachers.

In summary, the most significant types of support for candidates were financial (usually paid through devolved funds to the Local Authority or school from the employer) and improved access to mentoring, shadowing and tutoring support for the duration of the certification process. The people undertaking these support roles were most often serving or retired principals. Identification and training of these people is variable across the systems.

Recognition, overall, is fairly narrow. The DPA awarded registered principals with the trademark “RDO” as a sign of quality, but generally, recognition of certification meant being “eligible” to apply for a principal post. Although, as discussed earlier, reliance on course completion as the main means of judging suitability and quality of school leadership may be unwise. McEntrye (2005), for example, reported that completing the Scottish SQH was not a guarantee that the Local Authorities would recognise the qualification as “valuable”.

We conclude this chapter with a critical analysis and summary of assessing and recognising attainment of standards for school leadership in the five systems.

Critical analysis

The first observation is that, for each of the systems in this international review, responsibility for assessing and recognising attainment of standards in school leadership rested with governments or government agencies. Professional involvement was generally low. We could not find a country or an educational jurisdiction where a standards-guided “professional” certification system, as defined earlier in this chapter, was in operation, with the possible exception of the Netherlands. In each case, a government or a government agency controlled not only the standards but also the requirements for meeting the standards. In England, the decision about whether standards were met was left to course providers. Although the ISLLC standards were sponsored by the national Council of Chief State School Officers (state superintendents), the implementation of the standards for licensure was controlled by state governments. The level of professional involvement in assessment of performance was low.

There was no instance where associations of school leaders had established their own system for providing their members with a portable professional certification. In most cases ‘certification’ simply meant that prospective school leaders were eligible for selection or employment as school principals within a particular school system or jurisdiction. The profession played little part in deciding who had attained high standards of practice, or how they would be assessed.

The most common form of evidence for determining whether standards had been attained was successful completion of a prescribed course. Although there was evidence of a shift toward more active and school-based modes of learning during courses, there was little evidence of systematic approaches to gathering evidence over time about performance against each of the standards. The psychometric quality of approaches used in these five systems for gathering and assessing evidence is unknown. What is apparent is that the cardinal requirements of reliable judgment – multiple forms of evidence related to each of the standards and multiple trained independent judges of that evidence – were rarely apparent in these systems.

Two approaches to assessment and certification seem apparent across these systems. In the first, the standards body takes a more “hands off” approach. As in the English and Scottish examples, the key task of deciding whether the standards have been met is treated rather casually it would seem. It is left to course providers, using unclear methods. There is an unknown relationship, therefore, between the standards and the decision to grant certification. The standards have not been developed as measures of performance as described in Chapter Four and the extent to which the standards have guided the profession learning is unclear. Under this system, the responsible agency seems does not have control over its main function - the main quality assurance mechanism that governs the professional credibility of its certification.

In the second, the standards body holds a tighter control over all factors affecting the certification decision, but plays little direct part in providing courses. It

concentrates on developing, with professional associations, methods for gathering evidence from candidates for certification. It engages members of the profession in rigorous methods for training judges and assessing that evidence. It sees itself as the body responsible for providing a professionally credible and legally defensible certification that promotes high levels of professional involvement (e.g. USA's ABLE, Connecticut).

Studies on the impact of certification programs were rare. The lack of concerted research efforts to analyse the relationship between standards, leadership development and impact has been noted by other researchers (Browne-Ferrigno & Johnson Fusarelli, 2005, Wong, 2004).

Menter et al's (2005) inaugural national evaluation of the Scottish Qualification for Headship found that headteachers of candidates judged the strongest impact of the program was on the candidate's quality of teaching and learning, which is perhaps a little surprising. Success of the candidate, though, depended on the level of support and cooperation from colleagues – a crucial enabling or disabling factor to undertaking the workplace assessment tasks against the Standard. Again, though, this study relied mainly on self-reports and interviews with candidates and their headteachers; and would fall within Leithwood and Levin's (2004) view of a "typical" type of impact study found in the literature.

Summary

Overall, professional certification, as opposed to employer certification, is rare. Generally, the quality of methods used to gather and assess evidence about performance and provide certification are less than rigorous. In the absence of rigorous assessment guidelines (for use by individuals, peers or certification bodies), the ability of standards to promote effective professional learning is limited.

Chapter Eight: Lessons from the literature review

It is important first to restate the boundaries of this review. The scope of the review included national and international developments in school leadership standards, including approaches to the certification of school leaders who meet those standards.

While leadership takes many forms in schools, the brief for this review was to focus on standards that might apply to leadership at the school level – in particular, standards designed to guide the preparation of school leaders and standards designed to guide the continuing professional development of established school principals. In other words, the review covered leadership standards and certification of two broad career levels: standards for prospective principals and standards for established principals. As a generalisation, the needs of established principals in this area are less catered for than the needs of aspiring school leaders

The purpose of the review was to inform the deliberations of the Board of Directors of Teaching Australia as it considered options for the development and implementation of national standards for school leadership. The review focused on countries where the standards were part of a standards-guided learning “system”. This meant we sought standards that were being used for purposes such as professional learning and recognition, through some form of certification. The review also drew, where relevant, on many other examples of standards for school leadership in Australia and overseas.

An important distinction that ran through the review was the distinction between two sources of certification. Certification, as the term was used in this review, is an endorsement that standards of practice have been met. But that endorsement might be awarded by different agencies, such as a government or an employing authority, or by a professional body. We distinguish employer certification from professional certification and we restrict the expression, “professional certification” to an award made by an independent professional body.

Advanced certification by a professional body, such as “Chartered Engineer” by Engineering Australia, is necessarily a voluntary process. For most systems in this review, the standards and the certification processes were developed by governments, or government agencies, such as the National College for School Leadership in England. They were used to determine eligibility for selection for school leadership in those systems. There was no agency in any country similar with similar objectives and functions to those for Teaching Australia, except perhaps the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards in the USA.

Chapter One provided a rationale for the development of national standards for school leadership by the profession. Such standards would enable the profession to take a leading role in defining the quality of leadership, in a way that would complement the responsibilities of governments and employers in ensuring school leaders are well prepared and engaging in continuing professional learning. A

demonstrated capacity to develop and implement standards gives a professional body the credentials to offer leadership and provide assurance services in professional learning.

Chapter One made links to the extensive work on standards already conducted in Australia, including the National Standards Framework developed by MCEETYA and work on advanced standards for teachers by subject associations. These standards, together with those in other countries, now tend to reflect a continuum of widening leadership responsibilities from the classroom teacher, to teacher leaders, to leadership at the school level. In recruiting leaders, the focus is increasingly on providing teachers with stepping stones of widening leadership experience and responsibility. Recent sets of standards for teachers, especially those for accomplished and highly accomplished teachers, commonly include expectations of leadership in a range of areas related to effective school functioning. The areas of school operation within which principals are expected to provide leadership are broader, but the nature of leadership action is much the same.

Chapter Two provided an introduction to five systems for school leadership standards that were included in the review for more intensive examination. These included leadership standards from England, The Netherlands, Scotland, the USA and Western Australia. Most of the agencies responsible for the standards were government or statutory authorities, except the Dutch Principal Academy (DPA) - the only example of a fully-fledged independent professional body.

As mentioned, the leadership standards in these countries were chosen because they were being used as a part of system linking the standards to professional learning and some form of certification that the standards had been attained. In other words, the systems were chosen because they offered potential models for a national approach to leadership standards.

Chapter Three examined contemporary theory and research on school leadership, and its potential contribution to the development of standards for school leaders. In the past, leadership, has not been a field of research noted for its capacity for steadily building a sound knowledge base, or a commonly agreed upon definition of leadership. However, our reading of the literature is that there is increasing confidence that essential elements of effective leadership practices can be identified, giving some hope to those who seek to develop standards for leadership that have some validity.

Professional work is a blend of values and expertise and developers of professional standards have to weave the two together. Standards writers have to ask hard questions of researchers if the standards are to have validity and credibility. These are questions about the knowledge base of professional practice, not opinions about the personality traits and characteristics of good principals. Hard questions focus on what we know about the relationship between leadership practices and student learning. More realistic questions, perhaps, focus on the relationship between leadership practices and improvements in school culture, or in the quality of

teaching. These questions focus instead on the conditions that principals should be accountable for developing in their schools over time. They attempt to identify reasonable expectations for what principals should be able to achieve over time.

A challenge for those who would develop standards for school leadership is clarifying where the locus of authority ultimately rests about defining the work of school leaders – with the democratic authority base of duly elected governments, or with professional associations. The answer is that ultimately it necessarily rests with the public and our system of democratic government and ministerial authority, as it does for all professions. However, the level of ownership and commitment to professional standards within a profession will depend on the extent to which members of the profession are entrusted with their development.

The idea that professions develop their own standards to the exclusion of other stakeholders has long gone, if it was ever true. Instead, the rationale that a profession presents to the public for some autonomy in developing professional standards is that the public should place trust in the profession to define and enforce its own standards in return for full and open accounts of its practices, especially its quality assurance practices. This is an argument based on the importance of a sense of ownership in gaining commitment from a profession to a set of professional standards. The public does not seek to micromanage professions, but it has a right to demand accounts of its practice and responsiveness to its concerns.

Chapter Four provided an introduction to standards and the steps that are involved in writing standards that are valid and useful for professional learning and certification purposes. Standards writers need a guiding conception of leadership to frame their deliberations. The chapter illustrated three steps that would be involved in any serious attempt to develop a complete set of standards for school leaders, using examples such as the standard for Building Professional Community. The first step described what good leadership practice is, the second identified how evidence about leadership practice can be gathered and the third described what counts as meeting the standard. It is common to find sets of standards that do not go beyond the first step. Consequently, the standards can mean what anyone chooses them to mean, limiting their usefulness in providing a common language to talk about practice and professional development.

Chapters Five to Seven turned to making comparisons between the five systems selected for detailed review. In Chapter Five the focus was on how each of the five systems went about developing leadership standards, who was involved in that development, and what was included in the standards. Although there was some variation in details across the five countries, particularly the diagrammatic representations of standards, there was considerable commonality in the core features of effective leadership practices. Standards did not vary markedly according to what might be thought of as very different national and cultural contexts, although it is necessary to recognise that most of our cases of standards systems were from English speaking countries.

Standards are being used increasingly in these five countries to guide the preparation and development of school leaders, and for certification. Recent versions of school leadership standards resist the temptation to scope out the full practice of leadership and management in schools. They focus first on quality student learning, and move outwards to identify implications for what school leaders should know and be able to do. This trend is paralleled by a shift in professional learning approaches from acquisition of information to application and critical reflection on that information in a given school context. Mentor and coaching relationships, self-assessment-type tools and portfolio entries, are commonly used approaches.

Our review indicates that leadership standards are beginning to look more like professional standards rather than the old lists of dozens of competencies and job descriptions in past sets of standards. The latter seemed to have no clear guiding conception or conceptions of school leadership, or how the work of school leaders links to quality learning opportunities for students. The main organisers in recent sets of leadership standards are more parsimonious and interesting, as researchers and school leaders refine and reorganise their conceptions of what effective school leaders know and do. This effort is made possible by researchers as they synthesise those aspects of school leaders' work that establish the conditions for effective teaching and learning. The following aspects are taken from a synthesis by Leithwood, Seashore-Louis, Anderson and Wahlstrom (2004):

- Developing a deep understanding of how to support teachers;
- Managing the curriculum in ways that promote student learning, and
- Developing the ability to transform schools into more effective organisations that foster powerful teaching and learning for all students.

Chapter Six looked at how each system attempted to link school leadership standards to professional learning. Most of the systems in our review were aware of the need to develop a professional learning "program" that included a structured sequenced set of courses for school leaders over time. However, with some significant exceptions, we did not find this was common practice among professional preparation programs for school leaders in Australia.

It is one thing to create standards. It is quite another to ensure they become embedded in everyday thought and practice. The challenge for these systems was to identify the most effective ways to engage school leaders with those standards, especially in ways that supported and improved their practice. In other words, how to ensure school leaders take the initiative in using those standards to guide their professional learning and to receive feedback and evaluation about their practice in relation to the standards.

We found clear differences between the systems that may have significance for the Board of Directors of Teaching Australia, as they consider options about the long term functions of the Board. The question here is how to create an effective infrastructure to support the professional preparation of teachers and school

leaders who desire to move into school leadership. This review indicates two clearly different paths to follow.

The common way of thinking about how to link standards to professional learning in the systems we reviewed was to develop a course, or even a set of courses. It seems the obvious thing to do. "They need professional development; therefore let us develop a course to meet that need." Considerable effort often goes into the development of these courses, as with courses developed by the National College for School Leadership in England. Sometimes the leadership standards agency develops and provides the courses itself, as in WA. Sometimes the agency develops the course but contracts out provision to other providers, as with the NCSL. And sometimes the agency invites others to provide courses, but the agency assesses the courses and gives its accreditation to those who meet its standards for courses.

In other words, the agency's efforts focus on trying to ensure the quality of the course or courses. The limitations in this approach are several. As ever with professional development, the course mode can place the teacher or school leader in a passive role with respect to their professional learning. Others are doing most of the work identifying their needs. Courses are unavoidably front end loaded. There may be plenty of valuable input, but the learning that matters most is in the back end – at the stage when people try to implement their learning in the workplace. This is when follow up support and feedback are essential if learning and implementation are to happen.

Recent attacks on the quality of traditional course-based programs for preparing school leaders, particularly in the US, highlight the need for alternative routes and professional learning offerings in school leadership. An accumulation of academic credits and courses is no guarantee of capability or achievement in the workplace. Professional associations of school leaders are increasingly providers of a wider range of alternative professional learning activities. Particularly important are the activities, networks and other forms of support that associations provide locally to support candidates preparing for national professional certification.

One of the main purposes for developing standards is to clarify what aspiring and established school leaders should get better at. Well-written, valid leadership standards map out the deep structure of what effective school leaders need to learn how to do over time. The most important limitation with the "course" mode of thinking about professional learning is its poor match with standards in this developmental sense. Standards draw attention to the need to focus first on the person and their long term development, rather than focussing on the course.

It is in the nature of standards that they represent long term personal and professional learning goals. One does not learn, for example, how to lead and manage change in a single course, or over a brief span of time. Neither does one learn how to share leadership, or how to provide leadership in curriculum and teaching through a set of unrelated courses. Learning to lead and manage change requires opportunities to do just that in the workplace. This is not to say that

courses are unnecessary or unimportant. A short course on the research related to educational change would be very valuable at a time when a prospective school had the responsibility to lead a change initiative with a team of colleagues and to learn from the experience. Courses and other activities can be critically important when a person is actively seeking the professional development they think they need to build up a record of accomplishment and achievement in relation to professional standards – for example, a portfolio containing evidence of engagement in several leadership efforts, with reflections on what one has learned about oneself as a result of engaging in those initiatives.

Instead of focussing quality assurance efforts on the ‘course’, the professional certification models like ABLE and the NBPTS focus on ensuring the quality of the certification. The lesson from the NBPTS experience is that if you get the standards and certification right, together with recognition for that certification, the professional learning and support infrastructure will look after itself.

The ABLE model, based on the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards provided a proven, alternative approach to linking standards to professional learning. In this model, the standards agency develops a highly respected professional certification process based on evidence of performance. Chapter Six showed how preparation for professional certification places teachers and school leaders in a more proactive position in relation to planning and providing their own professional learning. The processes of preparing portfolio entries, for example Building Professional Community (see Chapter Four) necessarily engage teacher leaders in learning activities highly consistent with effective modes of professional learning. Most teachers who complete the NBPTS certification process say it was the most significant professional learning they had ever experienced.

Chapter Seven examined approaches used to judge whether the standards had been met in each of the five systems. As these judgements may affect the outcome of high stakes decision-making, it is vital that the judgment process is rigorous and fair.

The validity of the certification in most systems remains uncertain, as little research appears to have been conducted as yet to check a) the validity of the methods for gathering evidence as measures of the intention embodied in the relevant standards (i.e. the ‘fit’ between the assessment tasks and the relevant standards), b) how well the assessment tasks as a group provide evidence that covers the standards domain as a whole (i.e. the extent to which it is appropriate to generalise from the evidence to the candidate’s performance generally), c) the quality of training for judges and the consistency between judges in making assessments of the evidence (i.e. reliability), and d) the methods used in setting the performance standards (i.e. in determining the level of performance that meets the standard for each assessment task, and the level of performance needed overall for certification).

Most of the systems included in this review would struggle to show how they addressed, let alone met, these psychometric standards, except the NBPTS and perhaps the Dutch model. When high stakes decisions are made about people’s

future it is imperative that the processes for making judgements can stand up to scrutiny in terms of these psychometric standards. In the absence of such evidence, any certification, whether it is provided by a government agency or a professional body will quickly collapse under public and legal scrutiny.

In education, we expect that methods for assessing students meet high psychometric standards. A great deal of effort goes into ensuring that processes used for high stakes assessments of students are open and reproducible. We expect other professions to demonstrate that their certification is based on valid methods for assessing performance against the standards and that they provide a guarantee of capacity. We should expect no less if we are making claims to have the credentials of a profession.

The question of linking standards to professional certification is something for long term consideration by the teaching profession in Australia. This review, focusing particularly on five standards systems, has suggested that there are two clear choices for professional standards bodies – whether they conceive of themselves primarily as course accreditation agencies or as providers of professional certification. In considering future options around certification, these questions will need to be addressed:

- Which agency, or agencies, will provide certification for prospective and established school leaders who attain national professional standards?
- What forms of evidence are used to assess whether those standards have been attained? Who will develop the methods of assessment?
- Who will assess whether school leaders have attained the standards and how will they be trained to use the standards fairly and reliably?
- Who will provide the professional learning infrastructure to support candidates for certification?

Each of these questions points to areas where the profession can play a much stronger role. In a professional certification system, it is the profession that provides the certification. It is teachers and school leaders who develop the methods of assessment, who conduct the assessments, who set the standards and who provide professional learning support. From the five systems reviewed here, we conclude that if the objective is to develop and implement professional-wide standards for school leaders, the professional certification model is most likely to involve the profession at every level of operation and create the greatest sense of ownership.

One of the main lessons from the comparative education field is that it is rarely possible to transplant educational programs and practices from one country context to another. At the same time, there is much to be gained from comparing the way different countries handle similar concerns. One of the benefits is to clarify the options and choices available to the teaching profession and other stakeholders.

The brief for this review was to examine national and international developments in school leadership standards and assessment for prospective and established school leaders. We found four countries apart from Australia that had made concerted efforts to redesign programs for preparing and developing school leaders around standards. While none of the four international systems represents a model that could be translated to the Australian context, as a group they have provided a valuable basis on which to clarify options for the role that the profession in Australia might play in developing a national approach to standards for school leaders.

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Appendix One: Standards and Guiding Conceptual Frameworks for Educational Leadership – Australian Examples

EXAMPLE I

Australian Principals Associations Professional Development Council (APAPDC) Five educational leadership propositions which describe the desirable characteristics and attributes of educational leaders: now and in the future. (Use by SACLE to underpin its leadership framework)	Propositions of Educational Leadership: 1. Leadership starts from within Effective educational leaders know themselves, base their actions on a well informed set of values, and have a high degree of self-efficacy and a deep sense of commitment and responsibility. They have a clear personal vision for optimising learning and well-being, and the courage and determination to achieve that vision. 2. Leadership is about influencing others Effective educational leaders understand the nature of power and change and know that the quality of the relationships they have with others is crucial to their ability to influence and achieve desired outcomes. 3. Leadership develops a rich learning environment Effective educational leaders know what supports and enhances learning and teaching, and that collaborative work and professional learning are fundamental to professional and organisational improvement and growth. They understand children and young people and their educational and social needs, and are able to work expertly with others to ensure quality curriculum and support services. 4. Leadership builds professionalism and management capability Effective educational leaders manage the development of the organisation through quality systems and processes, and provide advocacy for professionalism in the community to maximise the value and influence of education and care. 5. Leadership inspires leadership actions and aspirations in others Effective educational leaders know that they have a responsibility to promote and support widespread and sustainable leadership, inspiring others to share in this leadership so that learning and well-being are enhanced. APAPDC website: http://www.apapdc.edu.au/ Propositions: http://www.sacle.edu.au/LF_propositions.html
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EXAMPLE 2

Australian Council for Educational Leadership (ACEL) Leadership Standards Framework Seven professional elements are encompassed within three non-linear career stages (novice or aspiring leaders; accomplished or established leader; exemplary or mentor leader). The professional elements are expanded into knowledge and qualities for each element. ACEL website: http://www.acel.org.au/index.asp	Seven Professional Elements: The Leader in Me Effective educational leaders know themselves and about leadership, have and use a set of sound values, have a high degree of self-efficacy and a deep sense of commitment and responsibility. They have a clear personal vision and passion for optimising student learning and wellbeing and the courage and determination to achieve that vision. The Leader Shaping the Future Effective educational leaders know that they have a responsibility to promote and support a vision and directions so that learning and wellbeing are optimised. Effective leaders know that change is the constant and that leading and managing for change is central to their work. They lead sustainable improvement. The Leader and the Learning Organisation Effective educational leaders know that supportive teaching and learning and collaborative practices are fundamental to employee satisfaction, student achievement and wellbeing. They understand that the school is a social construct where the emotional, physical, social and intellectual needs of all impact on the work of the school. They know how to work expertly within the learning community to ensure success. The Leader and Collaborative Learning Communities Effective educational leaders know the synergy and motivation that arises when individuals work collaboratively. They know that distributed leadership and management is more effective than hierarchical structures and processes. Collaborative communities reduce cultures of individualism and isolation and promote inquiry and change. The discipline of team learning and working requires an understanding of dialogue, open communication, conflict resolution skills and critical collaboration. The Leader in a Quality Organisation Educational leaders understand the nature of power and influence on change and know that the quality of their leadership and management strategies,
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	structures and processes will impact on their ability to achieve agreed improvement targets and learning outcomes for students. The Leader and Strategic Resource Management Educational leaders understand the theory around leadership and management, and can articulate organisational development theory, systems theory and strategic planning implementation and development. They know that the quality of their leadership and management strategies, structures and processes will impact on their ability to achieve agreed improvement outcomes. Educational leaders manage the resources strategically and work with their community to reach targets. The Leader Advocating Effective educational leaders know that it is their responsibility to promote and support excellence in teaching and learning and to be an advocate for professionalism in the community to maximize the value of the influential and important work that schools do.
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EXAMPLE 3

Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA) www.mceetya.edu.au/aboutmc.htm Teacher and School Leadership Capacity Working Group (TSLC) replaces and subsumes the work of the Teacher Quality & Educational Leadership Taskforce (TQELT). TQELT was formed in 2001 to provide advice to the Council in five key areas: 1. Teacher preparation and development; 2. A professional development regime; 3. Professional standards for teachers and principals – certification and ongoing professional development; 4. Issues to do with the supply and demand for teachers; 5. Encouraging professional leadership in schooling.	A National Framework for Professional Standards for Teaching Four areas of a teacher's work: • Practice • Knowledge • Skills • Professional Attributes Based on four stages of a teacher's career: • Graduation • Competence • Accomplishment • Leadership The framework promotes a profile approach rather than a staged approach to career and is focused on "teaching". TQELT MCEETYA (2003) A National Framework for Professional Standards for Teaching, Canberra, Curriculum Corporation, www.mceetya.edu/pdf/nationalframework.pdf
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EXAMPLE 4

Australian Capital Territory Department of Education and Training (ACT DE&T) Leadership and Management Framework (2000) Five domains of activity pertaining to three levels of leadership within the organisation – senior leaders; operational leaders and future leaders.	Domains of Educational Leadership Activity: Strategic Management Addresses the higher level direction setting and integration of outcomes that needs to occur at all levels across an organisation. • Manage operations to achieve planned outcomes • Facilitate and capitalise on change and innovation • Contribute to the development of a workplace learning environment Self Management Addresses the personal leadership behaviours and attitudes that leaders need to display in order to lead people and organisations effectively. • Manage personal work priorities and professional development • Provide leadership in the workplace Leading People Addresses the key function of developing effective working relationships capable of meeting the needs of organisations. • Build and maintain teams, networks and relationships • Provide leadership to maintain continuous professional development and training Organisational Management Addresses the issues of managing resources and ensuring outcomes are achieved within organisational policies, practices and procedures. • Manage workplace information • Manage quality customer service • Develop and maintain a safe work environment • Implement and monitor continuous improvement systems and processes Communication Addresses the need for leaders to be excellent communicators and their role in facilitating effective communication at all levels within, and external to, the organisation. • Develop and manage effective organisational communication • Develop and manage client relationships • Manage difficult situations to achieve positive outcomes http://www.decs.act.gov.au/departments/lmf_index.htm
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EXAMPLE 5

Catholic Education Commission of Victoria (CEC VICTORIA) Standards for School Leaders in Catholic Schools. (To be launched on 25 November 2005) CECV commissioned the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) to undertake the research. The framework is for teacher leaders and aspiring leaders. The standards framework sets out a guiding conception of leadership and actions in five key areas. The following features should be apparent in all of the actions of school leaders: 1. Having a clear moral purpose 2. Relationship building 3. Understanding and managing change 4. Knowledge creation and sharing 5. Ensuring coherence and alignment of structures	Leadership Actions in Key areas of School Life and Operations: Area 1 - The Faith Community 1.1 The catholic identity of the school 1.2 Education in life and faith 1.3 Celebration of life and faith 1.4 Action and social justice Area 2 - A Vision For The Whole School 2.1 A vision for teaching and learning 2.2 A learning culture 2.3 Policy and program development Area 3 - Teaching And Learning 3.1 A focus on student learning outcomes 3.2 Curriculum and assessment 3.3 A safe and effective environment for teaching and learning 3.4 Quality teaching Area 4 - People And Resources 4.1 Professional learning and development 4.2 Staff appraisal and performance review 4.3 Resources Area 5 - Pastoral And Community 5.1 Pastoral care 5.2 Communication with families 5.3 Partnerships 5.4 Service to the wider community As leaders and aspiring leaders perform these actions they should be able to demonstrate the knowledge that underpins them, the dispositions of leadership, and, especially, the five identified <i>guiding conceptions</i> of leadership. CECV website: http://www.cecv.melb.catholic.edu.au/
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EXAMPLE 6

Lutheran Education Australia Leadership Framework for Lutheran Schools and profiling instruments and processes have been developed through the consultants the Flagship for Creative & Authentic Leadership: Australian Catholic University National. The Framework reflects the mission and values of the Lutheran school as an agency of the Lutheran Church of Australia. Six capabilities are enacted through five educational leadership dimensions. The leadership capabilities are: • Theological • Personal • Relational • Professional • Managerial • Strategic Indicators for each capability are provided.	Educational Leadership Dimensions Spiritual Leadership Spiritual leadership focuses on living a Lutheran understanding of God's mission for the world with the intention of influencing and enriching the lives of students, staff and other members of the school community... Authentic Leadership The authentic leader is committed to the development of self and others... Educative Leadership Educative leaders play a critical role in the teaching and learning process by helping teachers and other members of the school community to discover meaning in what they do, while investing in them the capacity to bring about curriculum and pedagogical change... Organisational Leadership Organisational leadership focuses on various aspects of management at school level with a view to ensuring a balance of efficiency and effectiveness... Community Leadership Community leadership focuses on achieving a culture of solidarity and patterns of co-operation that encourages human interdependence as a means to achieve the mission of the school community... http://www.lea.org.au/show_file.asp?id=208&table=personnel
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EXAMPLE 7

New South Wales Department Of Education And Training (NSW DE&T) School Leadership Capability Framework. Developed by the NSW DE&T with the NSW Secondary Principals Council and the NSW Primary Principals Association. Five domains with three or four elements and descriptors. These describe the capabilities that school leaders may use to perform in highly effective ways.	Five Domains of Educational Leadership: Personal ▪ <i>Professional values and ethics.</i> School leaders are passionate about learning and have strong beliefs in the value of their work and the importance of professional ethics. ▪ <i>Personal strengths and commitment to ongoing personal and professional development.</i> School leaders use their knowledge of self to maximise overall performance of themselves and others. ▪ <i>Decision-making and judgment.</i> School leaders focus on the big picture, develop workable plans and evaluate the implications of their actions. Interpersonal ▪ <i>Effective communication.</i> School leaders communicate at a high level of effectiveness to a wide range of audiences and groups. ▪ <i>Productive relationships.</i> School leaders develop and sustain productive relationships within and beyond the school community. ▪ <i>Inspiring others.</i> School leaders develop effectiveness by inspiring, motivating and celebrating achievement. Educational ▪ <i>Pedagogical knowledge.</i> School leaders demonstrate expert knowledge of the core business of teaching, learning, curriculum, assessment and reporting. ▪ <i>Pedagogical application.</i> School leaders apply knowledge and understanding to inform, plan, implement, monitor and evaluate teaching, learning, assessment and reporting practices across the school. ▪ <i>Building an environment that maximises student learning.</i> School leaders have expert knowledge and understanding of student learning, development and behaviour and apply this information to the development of systems to support learners and learning. ▪ <i>Building learning communities.</i> School leaders develop and sustain a professional learning community.
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	Strategic ▪ <i>Building school vision and culture.</i> School leaders lead the school community to develop, articulate and commit to a shared educational vision focused on quality teaching and learning. ▪ <i>Strategic planning.</i> School leaders systematically gather and evaluate information from a broad variety of sources and use that information to think and plan creatively and strategically. ▪ <i>Building leadership.</i> School leaders recognise, promote and build the leadership capacity of staff, students, parents and the community to enhance leadership density across the school community. ▪ <i>Advocacy.</i> School leaders influence the educational debate, advocate for their schools and public education and engage the support of stakeholders and policymakers. Organisational ▪ <i>Operating effectively within a regulatory and organisational framework.</i> School leaders efficiently and effectively apply expert knowledge of legislative, syllabus and policy requirements. ▪ <i>Personnel.</i> School leaders develop and implement effective personnel management structures, strategies and procedures. ▪ <i>Management of resources to achieve goals.</i> School leaders manage effectively and accountability within their delegated responsibilities. ▪ <i>Managing systems and processes.</i> School leaders create and utilise effective management systems and processes. http://www.curriculumsupport.nsw.edu.au/leadership/index.cfm?u=2&i=22
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EXAMPLE 8

Northern Territory Department Of Employment, Education And Training (DEE&T NT) The People & Learning Division, Leadership Development is developing, currently, a Leadership Development Framework which focuses on different stages of leadership, for example, The Emerging Leaders Program. The Framework is based on a view that leadership is required of all staff regardless of age, position, or location. It will be divided into four sections.	Leadership Development Framework: The Framework, when completed, will set out to articulate: ▪ Clear leadership standards for the organisations ▪ Provide an easy to use leadership assessment tool (e.g. 360 degree feedback tool) ▪ Outline a range of leadership development opportunities for individuals and workgroups ▪ A leadership development strategy for particular initiatives (e.g. succession planning) DEE&T NT website: www.deet.nt.gov.au
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EXAMPLE 9

Queensland Catholic Education Commission (QCEC) Framework for Leadership in Queensland Catholic Schools (2004) QCEC contracted the Catholic Educational Leadership (CEL), a flagship of the Australian Catholic University to undertake the research. The mission and vision of Catholic Education encompasses six dimensions of leadership in QLD Catholic schools interact with four capabilities: ▪ Personal (e.g. developing self knowledge) ▪ Relational (e.g. demonstrating emotional maturity) ▪ Professional (e.g. being contextually aware and responsive) ▪ Missional (e.g. committing to a personal journey of faith)	Dimensions of Leadership in Queensland Catholic Schools: Inner Leadership Inner leadership leads to personal development... Interpersonal Leadership Interpersonal leadership focuses on building working relationships with the various members of the school community as well as the wider community... Organisational Leadership Organisational leadership focuses on various aspects of management at school level with a view to ensuring efficiency and effectiveness... Educative Leadership Educative leadership plays a critical role in the teaching and learning process by helping teachers and other members of the school community discover meaning in what they do, while investing in them the capacity to bring about curriculum change... Community Leadership Community leadership focuses on achieving solidarity or patterns of cooperation, expresses human interdependence and is the means to achieve the Common Good... Faith Leadership Faith leadership focuses on sharing the Catholic faith with the intention of influencing and enriching the lives of students, staff and other members of the school community... QCEC website: www.qcec.qld.catholic.edu.au Leadership Framework: http://www.qcec.qld.catholic.edu.au/pdf/LeadershipFramework_310504.pdf
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EXAMPLE 10

Queensland Department of Education and the Arts Standards framework for School Leaders (1998) (Being revised currently) Six key leadership roles. The roles are expanded by 24 best practice (knowledge, skills and behaviours) competencies and 12 personal performance competencies (characteristics of leaders over time and situations).	Key Leadership Roles: Leadership in Education Active at all levels is based on ethical practice and occurs within the context of the strategic plan. It encompasses scanning and interpreting the environment to secure a dynamic vision for the future. Leaders work with others to influence personal and organisational values, to promote continuous learning and improved outcomes and to enhance commitment and support within the education community. Management Involves the optimal use of human, financial, physical, information and technology resources to achieve agreed goals. Issues of equity and transparency in the allocation of, and access to, resources are key management concerns. Effective management is a participative process which values the contribution of people. People and Partnerships Trusting relationships and productive partnerships are built on, and maintained through, effective personal and interpersonal skills, astute communication and effective networks Change Shaping change involves the creation and maintenance of a learning organisation. Understanding one's own and others' responses to change enhances the ability to manage changing situations. Professional development and training facilitates the effective management of changing situations. Outcomes Achieving learning outcomes requires interpretation of curriculum framework, implementation of effective teaching and learning practices for ALL students, evaluation of performance, and collection and interpretation of data to report on student achievements. Achieving service outcomes requires the interpretation of systemic policy, identification of client needs, and implementation of effective standards. Accountability Being personally accountable for the outcomes of one's own performance and that of the school/work unit. Accountability requires that: all activity promotes the best interests of student/clients; results achieved are the best possible; practices are fair and equitable; outcomes are reported and used to inform the new direction. http://education.qld.gov.au/learning_ent/ldf/standards/leaders.html
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EXAMPLE 11

South Australia Leaders Learning Framework (2004) Developed through the South Australian Centre for Leaders in Education (SACLE). Five propositions and five dimensions accompanied by three or four indicators meaning and evidence of performance within the dimension.	Five dimensions of leadership learning: Learning Centred Leadership • Personal development for leadership • Self-awareness, well-being and resilience • Leadership characteristics and qualities Leading Learning and Teaching • Improving learning outcomes • Enhancing effective learning and teaching • Analysing data for improvement • Curriculum review and reform Leading Strategic Resource Management • Linking resources to learning improvement • Knowledge management and business systems • Risk analysis and management • Tools and processes for resource management Leading a Quality Organisation • Building learning communities • Designing preferred futures • Governance and accountability • Legal and policy frameworks Leading and Working with Others • Ethics and leadership principles • Building a culture of collaboration • Communication and developing relationships • Personnel management http://www.sacle.edu.au/leaderframework.html
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EXAMPLE 12

Tasmanian Department of Education and Training (DE&T, TAS)	A new leadership framework is under development and will be implemented from 2006.
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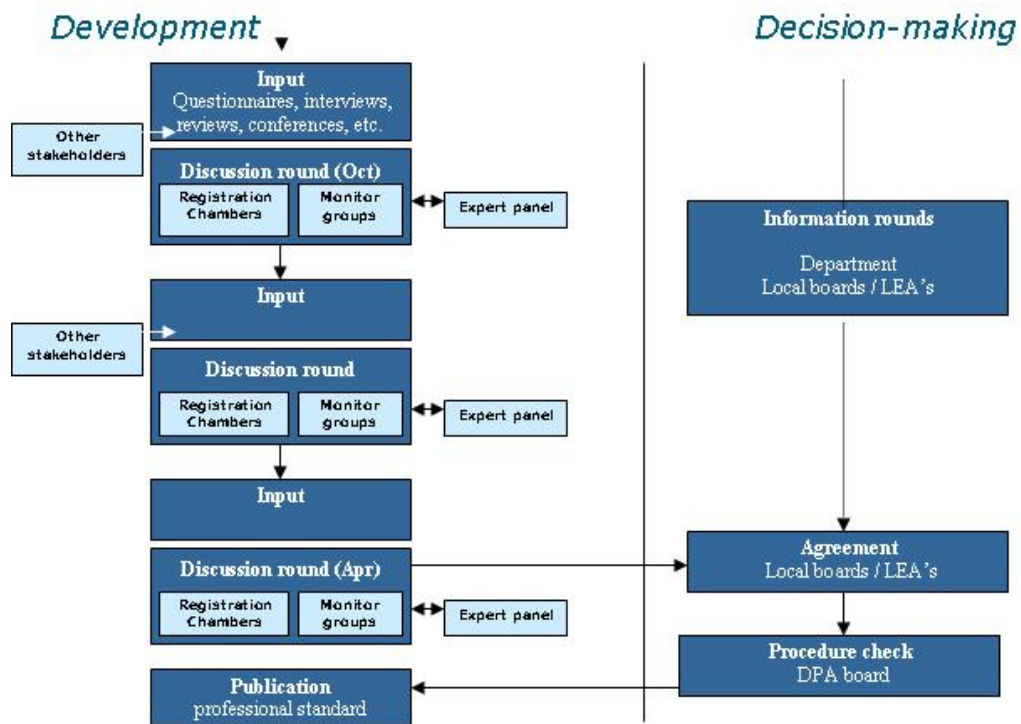
EXAMPLE 13

Victorian Department of Education & Training (DE&T VIC) Six standards as identified in the Department's "Principal Class Performance and Development Guide" (last updated March 2005, Appendix I, p. 14) DE&T has commenced work in a web-based resource The Pathways in Professional Learning for principals and teachers to reflect on their practice and career development needs. The framework is based on Sergiovanni Leadership Domains and Hay Leadership Capabilities. Standards of Professional Practice have been developed through the Victorian Institute of Teaching. These apply to all registered teachers: including school principals in Victoria and across all sectors.	Performance Standards: Accountability Meet specified school accountability requirements to ensure responsible and responsive management. Curriculum Articulate an educational vision for the school and work with the school community to translate this into goals and priorities that result in continuous improvement in literacy, numeracy and overall student performance. Environment Model high level inter-personal skills and establish and maintain a positive, caring and safe environment and codes of practice which support effective learning, cooperative behaviour and continuous improvement in student participation and retention Staff Management Demonstrate high quality leadership and human resource management in motivating, supporting, challenging and developing staff to maximise the contribution of each individual to improving standards of teaching and learning. Resources Management Demonstrate high quality management and organisational skills by ensuring that the resource management, finance, organization and administration of the school support the achievement of the school's goals and priorities. Community Building Engage the school in building and maintaining relationships and networks with other schools, education providers and community agencies and demonstrate contribution to a professional culture of collegiality, peer interaction, continuous learning and commitment to excellence. DE&T Performance and Development webpage: http://www.eduweb.vic.gov.au/hrweb/workm/perfor m/pmgmntTS.htm
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EXAMPLE 14

Western Australian Leadership Centre <i>Performance Standards for School Principals.</i> The standards form part of a Leadership Framework which guides all professional learning offerings in the Centre's career-based professional learning model. An Australian Research Council (ARC) grant funded a collaborative approach between the Leadership Centre (represented by the Department of Education and Training, WA, professional associations and AEU) and Edit Cowan and Murdoch Universities to investigate and pilot the development of standards. The Framework considers the characteristics of school leaders and how these link to standards of performance facilitating self-reflection leading to improved student outcomes. Five competency / duty areas are the sites for determining the quality of the performance standards through eight interpersonal skill (e.g. collaborative) and moral disposition (e.g. fairness) attributes. The standards are based on a set of 56 narrative accounts, or short case stories, describing a particular incident that a school leader has dealt with at a school. Each story has been classified against a set of eight attributes considered by school leaders to be most important to performing at a high level.	Performance Standards for School Principals: The <i>attributes</i> cover what research shows to be the key personal characteristics that leaders need to demonstrate in decision-making, discussions and actions. Leaders are: • Fair • Supportive • Collaborative • Decisive • Flexible • Tactful • Innovative • Persistent The competency/ duty areas of school leadership in which the attributes will be exercised are: • Policy and Direction • Teaching and Learning • Staff • Partnerships • Resources Performance Standards for School Principals: http://isp.ecu.edu.au/ssl/index.php Leadership Framework: http://www.eddept.wa.edu.au/lc/standards.html
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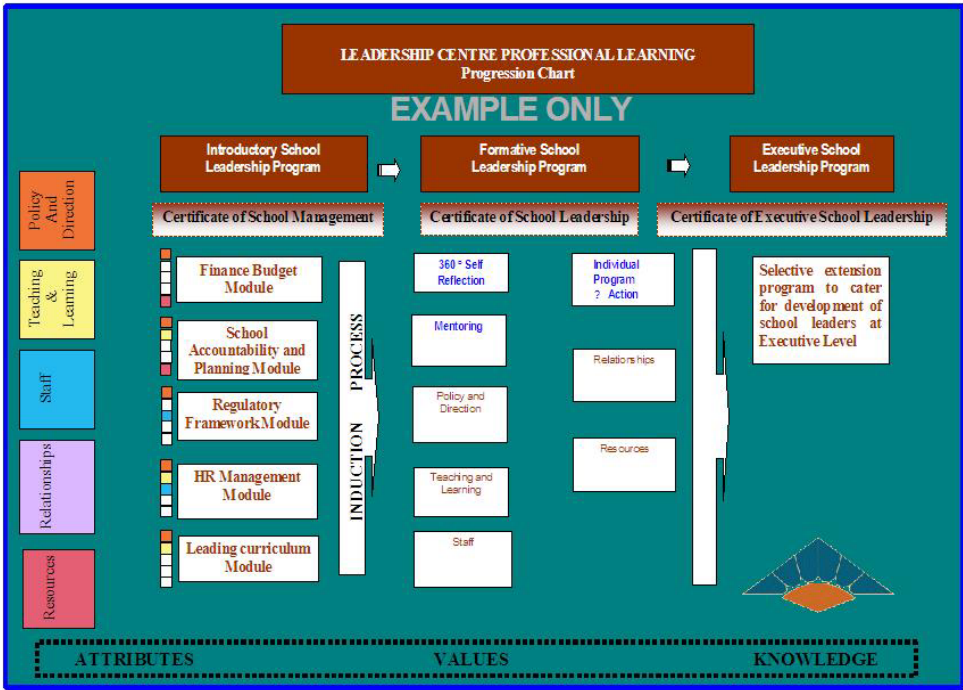
Appendix Two: Dutch Principal Academy (DPA) Process for Writing and Validating the “Professional Standard for Educational Leaders in Primary Education”



The DPA organises the dialogue between managers, employers, teachers and other experts in the field of management in primary education according to a Delphi method. This method structures the communication process of big groups. The full research takes several years and various approaches to research are used. This method has been set up as an annual process for validating the Standard.

Dutch Principals Academy (2005 unpublished). A brief introduction on the activities of the Dutch Principals' Academy. Dutch Principals Academy, Netherlands, p. 5.

Appendix Three: Western Australia’s Leadership Centre’s
“Professional Learning Progression Chart”



Appendix Four: Examples of Professional Learning for Principals in Australia by State or Territories

State or Territory	An overview of Leadership Learning programs in States and Territories <i>(Based on publicly available documentation. Please note a number of jurisdictions are undertaking new work in this area that may not be reflected here)</i>	Required for appointment as a principal?
Western Australia	Introductory School Leadership Program - Certificate of School Management • Finance and Budget Module • School Accountability and Planning Module • Regulatory Framework Module • HR Management Module • Leading curriculum Module Formative School Leadership Program - Certificate of School Leadership • 360° Self Reflection • Individual Program (Action Research/Post Graduate) • Mentoring • Policy and Direction • Teaching and Learning • Relationships • Resources • Staff Executive School Leadership Program- Certificate of Executive School Leadership • Selective extension program to cater for development of school leaders at Executive Level	Not at this time
South Australia	• Leading learning and teaching • Leading strategic resource management • Leaders lead: sustaining leadership in schools • Leading and working with others • Leading a quality organisation • Leaders' briefing • Recently appointed coordinators • Learning-Centred leadership The first five programs are based around SACLES Five Dimensions Leadership Learning	Not at this time

State or Territory	An overview of Leadership Learning programs in States and Territories <i>(Based on publicly available documentation. Please note a number of jurisdictions are undertaking new work in this area that may not be reflected here)</i>	Required for appointment as a principal?
	• Writing applications and preparing for interviews • Heads up 21	
Victoria	• Accelerated Development for High Potential Leaders (Masters programs in Educational Leadership at Monash and Melbourne Universities) • Eleanor Davis Program • Regional Succession Planning Programs • Towards the Principalship • Mentoring for First Time Principals • Principal Induction Template – including Dollars & Sense: Financial Management Program ,Planning for People: Human Resource Management Program, Bricks and Mortar: Facilities Management Program • Coaching Support for Experienced Principals • Building Capacity for Improvement Program	Not at this time
Tasmania	The Tasmanian Educational Leaders' Institute co-ordinate six major generic programs. • learning area induction program for teachers in their first three years of teaching; • leadership of the learning area at school level; • teaching in new situations • curriculum leadership (Primary and Middle Years); • Planning Professional Learning (In School Consultancy); and • Teaching in a small school. “The educational leadership program is designed to specifically meet the needs of aspirant principals and other senior teaching staff through a foundations program. The Tasmanian Educational Leaders' Institute will have responsibility for the accreditation, recognition and on-going professional activity of all principals, aspirant principals and senior teaching staff”. (http://connections.education.tas.gov.au/Nav/Strategy.asp?ID=00000010)	Not at this time

State or Territory	An overview of Leadership Learning programs in States and Territories <i>(Based on publicly available documentation. Please note a number of jurisdictions are undertaking new work in this area that may not be reflected here)</i>	Required for appointment as a principal?
New South Wales	The learning programs are provided by Department of Education and Training. The leadership development strategy of the Professional Learning Directorate has three elements: • Targeted preparation programs for aspiring leaders. This program, as the name suggests is designed for teachers who aspire to the principalship in the coming two years. Its special focus is helping to identify future leaders for schools that might be difficult to staff. • Induction for new school leaders • Leadership and support for current school leaders. This provision includes PD funds provided directly to schools, a school leadership scholarship program • On-line leadership development support	Not at this time
Queensland	Development Plans are provided for all Education Queensland employees. Principals and aspirant leaders can complete a 360 degree feedback instrument based on the competencies and a Diagnostic Scan to help them in establishing a personal leadership profile. A Providers Database (on CD) is available for school leaders to identify appropriate professional learning.	Not at this time
Australian Capital Territory	School Leadership programs are conducted by Canberra University and Department of Education and Training • Program 2 Subject 1: Introduction to Leadership • Program 2 Subject 2: Mentoring • Program 2 Subject 3: Leading and Managing Change (http://activated.det.act.gov.au/prof_learn/courses_events.htm#Teacher)	Not at this time
Northern Territory	Entry Level Programs • Leadership and induction • Leadership development programs for potential and existing leaders	Not at this time

State or Territory	An overview of Leadership Learning programs in States and Territories <i>(Based on publicly available documentation. Please note a number of jurisdictions are undertaking new work in this area that may not be reflected here)</i>	Required for appointment as a principal?
	Targeted and Tailored learning • Leadership development for professional , administration, technical and indigenous staff • Strategic planning for preferred futures • Business management and public sector leadership training • Leading and Managing change • ICT Integration Flexible Career Futures • Workplace mentoring and coaching development • Work exchange and mobility • Structured work placement • Professional Learning Communities	

Appendix Five: Examples of Professional Learning for Principals in Australia by Associations

Australia has many professional associations and providers at the state, territory and national level that offer professional development for educational leaders. Overviews of three key national providers of professional learning are presented below.

The Australian Council for Educational Leaders (ACEL)

ACEL's members are from all sectors and membership extends to New Zealand, Papua New Guinea and the rest of the world.

Leadership programs, topical seminars and workshops are offered on a regular basis at national, local affiliate (e.g. with New South Wales) and association levels. Membership in ACEL also provides access to an array of educational leadership journals, publications, websites and updates on significant forthcoming events.

An educational leadership conference is held annually. In 2005 the focus was “New Waves of Leadership”, which explored the opportunities and innovations of educational leadership in the 21st century.

An outstanding educational leader award is given annually in each state and territory. This award is presented to educational leaders who:

- Demonstrate capacity to develop leadership capacity in others
- Demonstrate authentic leadership for authentic teaching and learning
- Has led the improvement of school and student outcomes through shared leadership.

(ACEL, www.acel.org.au)

The Australian Principals Associations Professional Development Council (APAPDC)

APAPDC brings together the government and non-government sectors and the primary and secondary principals' associations. Membership includes the:

- Australian Primary Principals Association (APPA)
- Australian Secondary Principals Association (ASPA)
- Association of Heads of Independent Schools of Australia
- Association of Principals of Catholic Secondary Schools of Australia (APCSSA)

The role of APAPC is to:

- Advise on the provision and further development of professional development for principals
- Perform a brokering role in relation to the design, implementation and evaluation of certain projects
- Provide advice on the quality of the proposed programs
- Ensure equity of provision of the proposed programs
- Sponsor programs where appropriate.

APAPDC provides a number of professional leadership learning resources for principals and other school leaders, such as “Learn:Lead:Succeed”, a resource to support the building of leadership in Australian schools. It engages school leaders in different projects, such as “Dare to Lead”, a project that focuses on lifting the English literacy and numeracy levels of Indigenous students to that of national standards.

(APAPDC, www.apapdc.edu.au)

The Australian Principal’s Centre (APC)

The Australian Principals Centre joined the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) in January 2005. It is an organisation dedicated to the recognition and enhancement of the professional status of principals and has significant respect amongst school leaders.

APC conducts professional development and leadership development programs, as well as providing career planning services, for school leaders and those aspiring to leadership positions across all sectors of education. The Centre has a well-developed Accreditation Program and presently over 300 individuals have been accredited by peer assessment.

Depending on experience and capacity, individuals are accredited at one of three levels. “Affiliate” accreditation is available to practitioners who are at the early stage of their leadership work. “Associate Fellowship” is available to those practitioners who can demonstrate significant school based experience. “Fellowship” level accreditation is reserved for those practitioners who can demonstrate exemplary leadership both in the school and by way of a wider contribution to the profession. This voluntary accreditation scheme for school leaders appears to be unique to APC.

APC has a practitioner’s understanding of school culture, and an understanding of the leadership interventions most effective in bringing about targeted improvement in core areas of school leaders’ work. In its work with schools, APC assists schools

to develop an improvement culture that exemplifies successful learning organisations.

APC has links with several major leadership centres in the world, including the Harvard Principals Centre and the National College for School Leadership, and regularly hosts visits and presentations by some of the world's most renowned educational thinkers.

In addition, the staff of APC and its associated consultants engage in consultancy work for overseas aid agencies, UNESCO and the World Bank. This work is conducted in international schools, education authorities, professional associations and statutory authorities.

(APC: www.acer.edu.au)



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