School Leadership and Student Outcomes: Identifying What Works and Why

Best Evidence Synthesis Iteration [BES]

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Chapter 2
This report is one of a series of best evidence synthesis iterations (BESs) commissioned by the Ministry of Education. The Iterative Best Evidence Synthesis Programme is seeking to support collaborative knowledge building and use across policy, research, and practice in education. This series of syntheses draws together bodies of research evidence to explain what works and why to improve valued education outcomes and to make a bigger difference for the education of all our children and young people. Each synthesis celebrates the work of educators and the inquiry processes that enable educators and researchers to bring about sustainable improvements in education. Each is part of an iterative process that anticipates future research and development informing educational practice.

Earlier BESs have focused on effective teaching and professional learning in schools and on the impact of family and community influences on educational outcomes. This School Leadership and Student Outcomes BES will prove a crucial support for school leaders as they address our shared challenge of preparing all our children for the future.

The International Academy of Education has commissioned summaries of the recent BESs developed by the Ministry of Education. While the full reports provide the explanations and vignettes that are needed to support educational change, these short summaries will also be a convenient help for leaders. They will be available on the International Academy of Education website www.iaoed.org and on the UNESCO website http://unesdoc.unesco.org The first of these summaries to be published is:


Further information is available at www.educationcounts.govt.nz/goto/BES, and feedback is welcome at best.evidence@minedu.govt.nz

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While recognising that the development of a best evidence synthesis is a collaborative undertaking based on scoping and national guidelines developed by the New Zealand Ministry of Education and incorporating contributions from many others with relevant expertise, Viviane Robinson, Margie Hohepa, and Claire Lloyd assert their moral right to be recognised as the authors of this work.

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2. Our shared challenges

In Plato’s myth, it was the function of education to sort students into successes and failures. When many of today’s leaders were students, this was still a function of schooling. A silent revolution, however, has been going on in education policy, and much more is being asked of today’s school leaders. Knowledge is increasingly seen as an economic and social resource, with the result that societies everywhere are expecting their schools to help all students to learn, succeed, and develop the capabilities needed for lifelong learning.

Individuals benefit from education in terms of enhanced well-being and life opportunities; societies also benefit from education—in terms of increased social capital, social cohesion, and economic growth. Using data from 50 countries, Hanushek and Woessman analysed the relationship between economic growth and educational performance as judged by students’ results in international surveys. They concluded:

Cognitive skills have powerful effects on individual earnings, on the distribution of income and on economic growth (p. 657).

This analysis found that the extent to which all students get basic skills and the proportion of high achievers in a school system are both indicators of economic growth.

In this chapter, we highlight four compelling challenges for school leadership, policy makers, educational researchers, tertiary faculty, and others who support the work of schools in New Zealand. These challenges are to (i) raise achievement and reduce disparity in ways that prepare all of our children for the future, (ii) improve educational provision for and responsiveness to Māori students, (iii) improve students’ social outcomes, and (iv) adjust our self-managing school system so that it better supports leaders to do this work.

2.1 Student achievement in New Zealand

Before discussing these challenges, it is important to acknowledge that international comparative surveys reveal a pattern of high mean achievement on the part of New Zealand senior secondary students. These surveys suggest that, for a country that spends around 24% less per primary student and 20% less per secondary student than the OECD mean, many New Zealand students perform well.

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20 This chapter has been informed by work done by Adrienne Alton-Lee, Viviane Robinson, Cathy Wylie, Margie Hohepa, and Claire Lloyd, and by a range of analyses commissioned to inform this BES, including contributions from Doug Wilms, Richard Harker, and Ken Rowe. For local contextual information on governance and leadership in New Zealand, see: Ministry of Education (2007). New Zealand country report on improving school leadership. OECD country background report for New Zealand. www.oecd.org/dataoecd/37/43/38740175.pdf

21 Jowett, B. (Trans.). (1968). Plato: The republic, book III. New York: Airmont. In Plato’s ‘myth of the metals’, those born ‘gold’ are afforded the greatest honour and power and given much greater opportunities to learn than those born ‘brass’ or ‘iron’ (p. 141). In this way, Plato argued that an unequal society can be maintained by education rather than military might.


24 In this chapter, we have highlighted significant, persistent patterns revealed in New Zealand monitoring and assessment data. For further information on national strengths and weaknesses across the curriculum, see the National Education Monitoring Project (NEMP) at http://nemp.otago.ac.nz and Education Counts at www.educationcounts.govt.nz

25 OECD (2008). Education at a glance: OECD indicators 2008. Paris: OECD. 2005 data (the most recent available for international comparisons) show that New Zealand spent $4,780 (US dollar equivalent, based on purchasing parity) per primary student, compared with the OECD mean of $6,252. For secondary students, the figure was $6,278 (OECD mean, $7,804). www.educationcounts.govt.nz/indicators/resources/2043.

New Zealand’s expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP is higher than the OECD mean, reflecting its relatively large youth population.
### 2.1.1 Secondary schools

The reading, mathematics, science, and problem-solving proficiencies of 15-year-olds put New Zealand in the second-highest-performing group of countries in the PISA surveys, reflecting the cumulative impact of schooling. This outcome for mathematics should, however, be interpreted in the light of a less favourable outcome in the TIMSS survey, which included more countries than the PISA.

While these international surveys reveal a pattern of mid-to-high average achievement, they also reveal wide disparities. In the 2006 PISA survey, for example, 15.9% of 15-year-old New Zealand students were achieving at level 5 (the highest level) for reading literacy while 14.5% were achieving at level 1 or below. The corresponding OECD means were 8.6% and 12.7%.

The introduction of a senior secondary standards-based national qualifications system (NCEA) in 2002 has resulted in a decreasing percentage of students leaving school with few or no formal qualifications (see Figure 8).

![Figure 8. Percentage of school leavers with few or no formal qualifications](image-url)

### 2.1.2 Primary schools

The data from international surveys suggest a need for stronger pedagogical leadership in New Zealand primary schools. Recent surveys of mathematics show that the performance of our year 5 students is significantly lower on average than the international scale mean. Nineteen

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20 Reports on the achievement of New Zealand students on international surveys including PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) and TIMSS (Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study) can be found at www.educationcounts.govt.nz/publications

21 More countries participated in the 2002/03 TIMSS survey than the 2003 PISA. In the TIMSS year 9 survey, seven groups of countries scored significantly above the mean; New Zealand was in the sixth-highest-scoring group, together with Australia, US, Lithuania, Sweden, Scotland, Israel, Slovenia, and Italy. New Zealand was, however, below the international scale mean. New Zealand year 9 students were not included in the 2006/07 TIMSS survey.


23 Tomorrow’s Schools was the policy name given to the introduction of school-based management in New Zealand schools. See Taskforce to Review Education Administration (1988). Administering for excellence. Effective administration in education. Report of the Taskforce to Review Education Administration. Wellington. This report is often referred to as The Picot Report.

24 See note 24.

25 www.educationcounts.govt.nz/publications

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out of 37 countries, including Singapore, England, the US, and Australia, recorded significantly higher mean achievement. While the data show significant improvement from the mid-1990s through to the early 2000s, there was no change over the period 2002–06. Māori and Pasifika students typically achieved significantly below the international mean.

The science achievement of our students is around the international scale mean. Achievement increased in the 1990s, but, for middle-primary students, decreased significantly between 2002 and 2006\(^2\), returning to the levels of the mid-1990s. Again, Māori and Pasifika students typically achieved significantly below the international mean.

According to the 2005 PIRLS survey, the mean reading literacy achievement of our year 5 students was above the international scale mean\(^3\) but significantly lower than in 17 out of 40 participating countries, including England, the US, Hong Kong, and Singapore\(^4\). The data show no significant change in New Zealand’s middle-primary reading literacy performance between 2001 and 2005. Indeed, New Zealand’s reading literacy levels have remained much the same for over two decades\(^5\), while other countries, including Singapore, Hong Kong, the Russian Federation, Italy, and Germany, have significantly raised reading literacy achievement, particularly since 2000\(^6\).

The 2005 data\(^7\) for year 5 students revealed continuing wide disparities in male–female reading literacy achievement (although, as a group, boys performed above the international mean), and between students from different socio-economic groups. Māori and Pasifika students typically achieved significantly below the international mean: comparative effect sizes for the achievement of Pākehā/European and Māori (ES = –0.84) and Pākehā/European and Pasifika (ES = –0.91)\(^8\) are large.

### 2.1.3 Socio-economic status and student achievement

All the international data for New Zealand show a strong link between socio-economic status and achievement, especially at primary level. As a generalisation, it is the students from the homes with fewest books and other educational resources, and the schools that serve families of the lowest socio-economic status, that show the lowest achievement\(^9\).

At secondary level, there is a large variation in the percentage of students from different socio-economic groups gaining level 2 NCEA qualifications. In 2007, only 48% of students from decile 1–2 schools achieved this level of qualification, compared with over 80% of students from decile 9–10 schools\(^10\).

The *Community and Family Influences BES*\(^11\) provides evidence about the ways in which poverty is linked to educational outcomes. Like Chapter 7 of this BES, it also identifies strategies that

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\(^{6}\) Mullis, Martin, Kennedy, & Foy (2007), op. cit.

\(^{7}\) Chamberlain (2007), op. cit.


\(^{9}\) [www.educationcounts.govt.nz](http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz)

\(^{10}\) [www.educationcounts.govt.nz/indicators/education_and_learning_outcomes/qualifications/178](http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz/indicators/education_and_learning_outcomes/qualifications/178)

can be used by schools and social agencies to make a bigger educational difference for children from low-socio-economic-status families.

While socio-economic status is clearly a factor in between-school variance, Chapter 6 of this synthesis presents evidence that such variance is also linked to leadership. For example, an evaluation of the Literacy Professional Development (LPDP) intervention in almost 300 schools\(^{42}\) found that the school attended by students was an important indicator of achievement, over and above school background characteristics such as decile. The evaluators identified school leadership, school culture, the capability of distributed literacy leadership, and the extent to which schools operated as professional learning communities as the significant factors involved. Chapter 6 and Case 2 describe the practices used by leaders to bring about big shifts in student achievement in this intervention.

International surveys also reveal that some schooling systems do better than others at lifting the achievement of students from low-socio-economic-status families\(^{43}\).

### 2.2 Raising achievement and reducing disparities

If most of the variation in performance in a country is within schools, as it is in New Zealand, then reform efforts need to focus on low performing students within schools (p. 4)\(^{44}\).

While New Zealand has between-school differences in student performance, it has far greater within-school disparities—greater than many other countries, as Figure 9 shows. Only a little of this very high within-school variance in student achievement can be explained by the index of economic, social, and cultural status of students and schools.

This within-school variance is even more marked (the highest of 54 countries) in the PISA science results of 2006\(^{45}\). Similar evidence comes from the NZCER, which found that, based on the data from a sample of 187 schools, almost 80%\(^{46}\) of the variance in year 4 mathematics scores on the Progressive Achievement Tests (PATs) is accounted for by within-school differences.

This variance of achievement within schools suggests that the findings of this BES have relevance for the leaders of all schools. Effective pedagogical leadership creates the conditions that can ensure quality teaching in every classroom and, by doing so, reduce within-school variance in student achievement.

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\(^{46}\) An analysis undertaken by Hilary Ferral of NZCER’s Assessment, Design & Reporting service found that socio-economic decile accounted for a further 14%, and other school factors, 6% of variance. This analysis involved a sub-sample of March 2007 PAT marking service data that was representative of the national proportions of schools in each quintile. PAT mathematics assessments use RASCH scaling and allow students from years 3 to 10 to be placed on a single scale.
### Figure 9. Variance in student performance between schools and within schools on the OECD’s PISA 2003 mathematics scale

#### 2.3 Ka Hikitia: Supporting Māori students to succeed as Māori

The second challenge is to realise the achievement potential of Māori students. This will involve breaking free of an entrenched pattern of systemic underperformance and will require a ‘stepping up’ of the educational opportunities available to young Māori.

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47 This figure is a reproduction of Figure 4.1 of OECD (2003) Learning for tomorrow’s world: First results from PISA 2003, p. 162.

Senior secondary school qualifications are critical for students, not only for the knowledge and skills they represent but also because they serve as gateways to higher education and employment. Since New Zealand put the standards-based NCEA in place, more students have left school with at least some formal qualifications, but relative disparities have persisted; for example, fewer than 44% of Māori gained NCEA Level 2 in 2007 (Figure 10).

An analysis of data from two large studies of New Zealand secondary schools found that the lower achievement of Māori students was linked not only to socio-economic status. After the socio-economic status of the students’ family and the decile rating of the school had been accounted for, there remained an additional, negative effect arising from the interaction between schools and Māori ethnicity.

It is significant that Māori in Māori-medium schools are more likely than Māori in English-medium schools to meet the literacy and numeracy requirements for Level 1 NCEA by the end of year 11 and to gain age-typical senior school qualifications (for example, Level 1 NCEA in year 11). This is despite the relatively recent provision of Māori-medium education and the extraordinary challenges that Māori leadership has had to overcome to resource schooling in a language revitalisation context. As explained in Chapter 3, Māori-medium schools pursue a complex agenda that embraces academic achievement and language and cultural regeneration. Into this mix add a shortage of qualified teachers competent in te reo Māori and relatively fewer curriculum and assessment resources. It then becomes clear why it is so difficult to develop high-quality Māori-medium educational pathways and make them more widely available to young people.

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The corresponding challenge for educational leaders in English-medium schools is to support Māori students to achieve as Māori. Research over at least three decades shows, for example, that mainstream teachers frequently mispronounce the names of Māori students, have inappropriately low expectations for Māori young people, assess their achievement inappropriately, and give them less praise. In these ways and others, teachers can unwittingly contribute to inequitable opportunities and exacerbate the racism that Māori students all too often encounter in English-medium classrooms. Such practices are difficult to change, but it is imperative that New Zealand develop a school system that values cultural distinctiveness and supports the aspirations of Māori young people to participate successfully in te ao Māori, in New Zealand, and in the global community.

The groups that experience least success in English-medium schools also happen to be the fastest growing groups in our population. Statistics New Zealand projections indicate that Māori will comprise about 29% of the youth population in 2026, up from 24% in 2006. Pasifika are projected to comprise about 18% in 2026, up from 12% in 2006. These trends make the equity issue all the more urgent for school leadership.

The government’s Māori Education Strategy Ka Hikitia—Managing for Success emphasises how crucial organisational change is to realising Māori potential in education. The Te Kotahitanga professional development intervention demonstrates that, despite the difficulties, transformative change is possible when effective professional development is linked to a process of continuous improvement and underpinned by research and development. An independent analysis shows, for example, that nearly half the Māori students of teachers who participated in this project have gone on to get NCEA Level 1 compared with fewer than a third prior to the professional learning. There have also been dramatic gains for the Pasifika students of participating teachers.

While the focus of the section above has been indigenous students, the government’s Pasifika Education Plan 2008–2012 has been developed specifically to help ensure that all Pasifika young people get a high-quality education and achieve good outcomes.

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2.4 Strengthening valued social outcomes

The third challenge is to strengthen valued social outcomes, including the ability of students to relate well to each other\(^9\). Of the 35 countries participating in the recent TIMSS study\(^6\), New Zealand ranked second-lowest in terms of the percentage of middle-primary students who felt safe at school. This ranking was based on students’ answers to questions about whether, over the previous month, they had (i) been shoved, hit, or kicked by other students, (ii) made to do things they didn’t want to by other students, (iii) made fun of or left out of peer activities, or (iv) had something stolen. Only 25% of students had not had all of these experiences in the previous month. The international mean was 42%.

Various international comparisons over the past 15 years\(^6\) have found that New Zealand students—both primary and secondary—find interactions with peers more intimidating and less safe than students in many other countries. New Zealand’s comparatively high youth suicide rate reinforces the importance of attending to this finding.

Suicide is one indicator of the mental health and social well-being of a society. A 2005 comparison\(^6\) of 13 OECD countries found that New Zealand had the second-highest suicide death rate (after Finland) for males aged 15–24 years and the third-highest suicide death rate (after Finland and Japan) for females aged 15–24. New Zealand is one of a small number of countries where suicide death rates are higher for young people than for older people.

It is important that school leaders, along with families and communities, address issues of student safety\(^6\). This is reinforced by the finding in Chapter 4 that there is a link between achievement and the effectiveness of school leadership in ensuring an orderly and supportive environment. Safety is important for student well-being and is linked to higher achievement but, over and above these considerations, our children have the right to feel safe at school.

Other best evidence syntheses\(^6\) highlight how effective pedagogy can counter bullying and intimidation at the same time as it advances academic, self-regulatory, and social outcomes such as the ability to collaborate and to resolve conflict. For example, the *Social Sciences / Tikanga à Iwi BES*\(^6\) describes how supportive learning communities have been built in schools through social studies. The same BES also explains how, in teaching, business-as-usual can inadvertently exacerbate negative peer relationships. With strong pedagogical leadership, schools can develop student learning communities and responsible citizens. They are also able to strengthen valued social outcomes generally, to the benefit of everyone: young people, teachers, and the community.

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\(^9\) Note the key competencies, principles, and values of *The New Zealand Curriculum*. http://nzcurriculum.tki.org.nz/


\(^6\) National Administration Guideline 5 of the Education Act (1989) reads: “Each Board of Trustees is also required to (i) provide a safe physical and emotional environment for students; (ii) comply in full with any legislation currently in force or that may be developed to ensure the safety of students and employees.”

\(^6\) http://educationcounts.govt.nz/goto/BES

2.5 Supporting leaders within a self-managing system

In New Zealand schools, most decisions relating to teaching, use of resources, personnel, and planning have been made at the school level since the introduction of school-based management in 1989. Like the Netherlands and England, New Zealand has one of the most decentralised schooling systems in the OECD. Its predominantly lay boards of trustees play a much greater role in school governance than do school boards in other countries. An analysis of evidence from the PISA, TIMSS, and PIRLS surveys has found that, in general, greater school autonomy is correlated with greater student achievement. However, the increased autonomy that followed the 1989 Tomorrow’s Schools reforms in New Zealand was not associated with a sustained lift in student performance as envisaged by the Taskforce to Review Education Administration (see Figure 8).

The OECD’s recent New Zealand report on improving school leadership gives a comprehensive overview of the same context-related issues that were highlighted by stakeholders during the consultation phase of the development of this BES. These issues include the size of the principal’s role, lack of a systems approach to leadership development and support, and difficulties in ensuring that all schools have effective leadership. We conclude this section by briefly surveying contextual issues that have particular bearing on the leadership and governance roles in our schools.

New Zealand principals report high satisfaction with their jobs but also high workloads and stress levels. Balancing the educational leadership and management aspects of the role is reported to be a major source of stress. In mid-2006, only 17% of secondary principals thought they had enough time for professional leadership. A year later, only 20% of primary principals felt this was true of them. The tension between the leadership and management aspects of their role is a recurring theme in New Zealand research on the work of principals. It is also an issue for middle managers, such as heads of department in secondary schools, but there has been little research into their roles.

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67 Section 79 of the 1989 Education Act states that “Except to the extent that any enactment or the general law of New Zealand provides otherwise, a school’s Board has complete discretion to control the management of the school as it sees fit.” New Zealand Government (1989). *Education Act, No. 80.*


69 Taskforce to Review Education Administration (1988). *Administering for excellence: Effective administration in education. Report of the Taskforce to Review Education Administration*. Wellington: Government Printer. See p. 98 “[W]e believe that the standard of education outcomes will be improved under the new structure ... We are convinced that our proposals will encourage commitment, initiative, drive, energy and enthusiasm and that these will inevitably lead to improved performance.”


71 See the New Zealand Council for Educational Research’s periodic national surveys and Hodgson, E., & Wylie, C. (2005). *Stress and wellbeing among New Zealand principals*. Wellington, New Zealand Council for Educational Research. This report analysed data from the Principals’ Hauora online survey carried out by the New Zealand Principals’ Federation. This survey gained responses from 1,523 principals (61% of the total); there was some under-representation of secondary school and kura kaupapa Māori principals.


International comparisons over the past decade have shown that the amount of time New Zealand principals spend on administration is above the international mean\(^{74}\). This is true of both primary and secondary principals. In recent comparisons\(^{75}\), primary principals have reported spending 47% of their time on administration. This is the second highest percentage of the 36 countries surveyed and compares with an international mean of 32%. An earlier analysis found marked differences in the administrative loads reported by principals of secondary urban and secondary rural schools; the former reported spending 79 hours per month on administration and the latter, 100 hours\(^{76}\). The burdens of property management and administrative paperwork (including that required by government agencies) are recurrent themes in the research. Comparative surveys indicate that time spent on administration comes at the expense of time spent on professional leadership activities.

In chapters 4–6 of this BES, we show that the types of leadership that make a positive difference to student achievement and well-being are those that are focused on monitoring and improving teaching and learning. In the two categories used in the international surveys that describe this type of leadership, instructional and supervising and developing and evaluating staff, the time spent by New Zealand principals has typically been below, or just on, the international mean. In the 2006 TIMSS survey, primary principals reported spending 11% of their time supervising and evaluating teachers—the international mean for this category was 19%\(^{77}\).

In the most recent PIRLS survey of reading literacy in primary schools, New Zealand principals reported spending 15% of their time on instructional leadership—just below the international mean. The time they were spending on administration amounted to 32%, much higher than the international mean of 22%, while the proportions of time spent on staff development, instructional leadership, and parent and community relations were all lower than the international means. In the same survey, principals reported spending a mean of 57 hours per week on their work. This was the highest total of the 40 countries involved and compares with an international mean of just 39 hours\(^{78}\). These data, together with principals' own reports on sources of stress, suggest that few achieve the workload balance that will best serve their students and that they themselves wish for. This issue is addressed further in Chapter 9.

New Zealand schools do not perform uniformly well against the indicators used by the Education Review Office (ERO), the government agency charged with assessing school performance. Over a 5-year period, the agency found that between 13 and 17% of schools reviewed were not performing satisfactorily\(^{79}\). According to ERO’s 2007–08 annual report, 44% of the schools that underwent a supplementary review were still not meeting the criteria at the time of the follow-up review. Some of this variation between schools is linked to leadership and governance. ERO

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found boards to be governing well in only 60% of the 673 schools reviewed between January 2005 and March 2007. In her study of school governance in New Zealand, Wylie concluded that there are some persistent issues with the current system of parent-elected boards, and that if school leadership is to have the strengthening of valued student outcomes as its primary focus, the governance system needs better support and some reframing. Over the 20 years of their existence, predominantly lay boards of trustees have been given increasingly wide-ranging responsibilities and have become subject to increasingly greater accountabilities. One indicator that the system is under stress is that, in 2006, 61% of secondary school trustees thought their overall level of responsibility was too great; the comparable figure for 2003 was 36%.

The persistent issues identified by Wylie include lack of time to fulfil the requirements of the role (trustees are volunteers); gaps in trustee expertise, particularly when it comes to strategic management and understanding educational issues; and too much time being spent on administration—most notably finance and property matters—instead of strategic management, which is what trustees say they would prefer to be spending their time on. Low-decile schools find it much harder to attract onto their boards the same level of expertise as mid- and high-decile schools, and there is some evidence that fewer trustees in low-decile schools have a proper grasp of their governance role. Defining where the boundary between governance and management lies can be a source of tension in any school but is more likely to be so in rural schools. Rural school trustees must sometimes also face additional challenges, such as a shortage of trustee candidates or a falling roll.

A study of school governance in the US compared the views of board members in schools with relatively high student achievement and in schools with relatively low student achievement. Board members in high-achieving schools typically had high expectations in terms of student achievement, an orientation towards improvement (generally one that valued the systematic use of data), and an emphasis on supporting teaching and learning. A study of governance in the Welsh school system, which has close parallels to New Zealand’s, concluded that school improvement is fostered by governance practices that involve scrutiny and accountability in a climate of mutual respect and shared responsibility. Chapter 8 of this BES highlights the crucially important role of relational trust in all leadership of school improvement.

2.6 Our shared challenges

School improvement evidence tells us that persistent and widespread disparities in achievement are best tackled through partnerships between leaders in schools and external expertise. The Teacher Professional Learning and Development BES found that school-based change supported by capable external expertise was a pattern found in many highly effective interventions.

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82 ibid.
A recent analysis of successful school reform programmes—‘successful’ in terms of improved student outcomes—showed, in fact, that all these successful programmes involved partnerships between school leaders and external leaders. The latter were usually researchers or education officials (district, state, or national). This means that those in professional education and advisory roles in the tertiary sector, policy makers, and educational researchers also have crucial leadership responsibilities.

By focusing on effective leadership practices, it is the writers’ aim that this BES will support policy makers, researchers, and school leaders, together with those who provide their professional learning and support, to work together to meet our shared challenges in ways that lead to long-term, sustainable improvement in student outcomes—particularly for those groups of students that have not been well served by the system in the past.

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References

Note: All Best Evidence Synthesis Programme publications can be accessed at www.educationcounts.govt.nz/goto/BES


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**Glossary of Māori terms**

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<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ako</td>
<td>Teaching and learning, understood as a single, reciprocal process</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hapū</td>
<td>Sub-tribe</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hui</td>
<td>Meeting, gathering, usually with a specific kaupapa</td>
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<tr>
<td>Iwi</td>
<td>People, nation, tribe</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kaiako</td>
<td>Teacher, instructor</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kanohi ki te kanohi</td>
<td>Face to face</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kaumātua</td>
<td>Elder, old man or woman, adult</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kaupapa</td>
<td>Purpose, agenda</td>
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<tr>
<td>Koro</td>
<td>Male elder, old man, grandfather</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuia</td>
<td>Female elder, old woman, grandmother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kura</td>
<td>School</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kura kaupapa Māori</td>
<td>Māori-medium school with an identifiable philosophical base (e.g., Te Aho Matua)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kura whānau</td>
<td>The support network of families and extended families associated with a school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ngāti</td>
<td>Prefix denoting tribe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pākehā</td>
<td>New Zealand-born non-Māori, especially those of European descent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pāngarau</td>
<td>Mathematics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pānui</td>
<td>Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pōwhiri</td>
<td>Formal welcome or opening ceremony</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taonga</td>
<td>Prized possession, treasure, inheritance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Te Aho Matua</td>
<td>Literally, the central thread; the philosophical statement that guides the operations of many kura</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Te reo Māori</td>
<td>The Māori language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Te reo Māori me ōna tikanga</td>
<td>Māori language and customs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tikanga</td>
<td>The usual and accepted procedure or way of doing things; protocol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuhituhi</td>
<td>Writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumuaki</td>
<td>Principal, head teacher, leader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whakapapa</td>
<td>Ancestry, genealogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whānau</td>
<td>Family, to be understood in a much more encompassing sense than the nuclear family; network of mutual supports and obligations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whanaungatanga</td>
<td>Sense of kinship, family, belonging</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mo ngā tamariki, kia rua ngā reo. Ko te reo o ngā mātua tipuna tuatahi, ko te reo o tauiwi tuarua. Kia ʻorite te pakari o ia reo, kia tu tangata ai ngā tamariki i roto i te ao Māori, i roto hoki i te ao o tauiwi. I runga i tenei whakaaro, kia tere pakari ai te reo o ngā tamariki, me whakahaere ngā mahi katoa o te kura i roto i te reo Māori. Tae atu ki te hunga kuhu mai ki roto i te kura, me kōrero Māori katoa, i ngā wā katoa.

Kura kaupapa Māori, therefore:
* respect all languages;
* expect full competency in Māori and English for the children of the kura;
* affirm that total immersion most rapidly develops language competence and assert that the language of the kura be, for the most part, exclusively Māori.

*Te Aho Matua o ngā Kura Kaupapa Māori.*

English interpretation by Dr Kāterina Te Heikōkō Mataira